

# The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MARCH 2, 1882.

## The Week.

EARLY in the week the Stock Exchange came very near drifting into a panic. As it was, there was a heavy decline, chiefly in the stocks of the Southern railroads, which have been under clique manipulation for several months. The chief of these in the decline which took place was Richmond and Danville Railroad stock, which had been marked up from about par to about 250, and which suddenly dropped on Thursday from 219 "ex-privilege" to 130. A kindred stock, Richmond and West Point, fell from 255 to 180, and other stocks less subject to clique control fell 1@16½ points—the latter, Louisville and Nashville. This last-named stock has been doubled within two years, and has declared 6 per cent. annual dividends since. The system of roads which this company controls is the best in the Southern States, but the company, in its extensions, used its own credit, rather than the securities of the roads which it built or acquired, and the result was that while it had in its treasury as assets many millions of securities, it also had incurred a floating debt of many millions. This, on becoming known, made the stock of the company a subject of attack in the stock market, with the result, in less than two weeks, of driving the price down from the nineties into the sixties. Such a decline in a presumably good stock affected confidence, and was really the cause of the general depression which prevailed. At this juncture the friends of the company consulted with others who are interested in preventing a general discrediting of railroad securities, and a scheme was devised for changing the floating debt into debenture bonds, which friends of the company subscribed to to the amount of \$10,000,000. This restored confidence in this stock and in the general stock market, and the result was a recovery in prices of 1@13 points, and of 38 points in Richmond and Danville. The recovery was also assisted by the purchases by the Vanderbilts of the stocks of their own roads.

The market for foreign exchange advanced early in the week so that gold exports again became possible, and the specie shipments for the week amounted to \$1,709,563, making the total since January 1 \$8,789,740. The Bank of England reduced its discount rate during the week, as did also the Bank of France and the Bank of Belgium, and the tendency in all the foreign markets was to an establishment of confidence as well as to lower rates for money. The New York banks, partly because of the specie shipments, partly on account of the drain of currency to the West, but largely on account of the steady absorption of money by the Treasury, showed a reduction of \$4,529,500, which left them \$1,433,075 short of a 25 per cent. reserve. Nevertheless the rate for money did not rule above 6 per cent. for any length of time, and was

much of the time as low as 4@5 per cent. The Treasury disbursements during March for pensions, bond redemptions, and interest on the public debt amount to \$32,500,000. The price of silver varied little during the week.

The "flurry" in Wall Street has called forth the usual homilies from the newspapers, as well as other moralists, addressed to that unfortunate class, the "weak holders," whom the bears periodically "shake out." It would be curious and interesting to know how many men were ever prevented from speculating in Wall Street by advice, and how many of those who advise the weak holder to keep out of the street do so themselves. The attitude of the newspaper moralist toward him is, moreover, almost always too hard and stern, and his cruel admonitions are apt to reach him just when he is in the deepest distress. It seldom consists of anything more cheering or helpful than "I told you so," or "Now you see how it is yourself," when what he most needs is more margin, or some sort of recoupment for his losses. But one thing is very plain, that the small speculator in our day must either suffer or be strong. He cannot avoid suffering if he be weak. The great speculators now command such enormous masses of capital that they make great raids without difficulty and without giving any sign. No watching of the market can prepare anybody for them, and there is no salvation for anybody who cannot survive a heavy fall, for a day or two at least. Some of the great operators, too, make the nearest approach to Satanic methods, in their falsehood, treachery, and indifference to the fate of friends and foes, which the modern business world has yet witnessed. They remind one of Clovis, the king of the Franks, who is reputed to have killed all his relations that he could discover, and then began wailing and lamenting his desolate, kinless state in the hope that more relations would show themselves, so that he might kill them too.

As might have been expected, an investigation has been ordered in the House and moved in the Senate into the contract between the house of Morton, Bliss & Co. and the Crédit Industriel. It was impossible that it should be regarded as a purely commercial contract, in view of the avowal made by M. Suarez in his report to his President as to the object of giving the agency to a "first-class American house," and in view of that clause of the contract which provides that in case it should fail to become "operative and effective," "in consequence of the failure of the United States to mediate between Chili and Peru and Bolivia, and thus to secure peace and the recognition of the concessions, rights, and privileges granted to and secured by the contracts above mentioned," it should cease within six years. This, read in the light of the Suarez avowal, was a distinct stipulation that the continuance of the contract would depend on the success of the firm of Morton, Bliss &

Co. in securing the political aid of the United States for the company. It was made all the more significant by the fact that when the contract was negotiated Mr. Morton had been appointed United States Minister to Paris. Mr. Robert E. Randall, who signs the contract in behalf of the firm, pleads in extenuation, in Saturday's *Sun*, that the negotiations began before Mr. Morton was appointed. But Mr. Morton was appointed on the 9th of March, 1881, and the contract was not signed till the 27th of August following; so that he had six months to consider what the effect of the contract on the proprieties of his official position would be. It is as well to add here that the Crédit Industriel is really M. Dreyfus, a very wealthy Jewish banker and speculator of Paris, who has long been in contention with Peru, and we believe gave M. Grévy his first conspicuous case at the bar in litigation arising out of that contention, and is still in intimate relations with him. Moreover, the conversation with Mr. Morton, in which M. Grévy suggested joint mediation, and which Mr. Morton reported to Mr. Blaine, was apparently not called for by Mr. Blaine at all, but was eagerly seized on by the latter as an occasion for producing the American eagle, which he caused to give such a terrible scream that it seems to have scared poor M. Grévy into complete silence. It was plainly no part of Mr. Blaine's plan to have any European partners in the mediation business.

When the desire of the President to make ex-Senator Sargent, of California, Secretary of the Interior was made known to the country, so decided and persistent an opposition was revealed by a large and respectable section of the Republican party that the appointment was wisely withheld. It was not necessary for the President to decide whether this opposition was based upon perfectly valid grounds or not. So far as it was grounded upon the Desert Land Act we think that Mr. Sargent was subjected to some injustice. There is no evidence to show that he was governed by any improper motives in any steps which he took in promoting the passage of that act, or that he ever derived, or hoped to derive, any personal advantage from it. If rascals took advantage of it, they did so in the same way that other land-laws have been perverted from their true intent. Swamp lands, school and university lands, old Mexican grants, military bounty lands, and even lands subject to preemption, have been made the subject of dishonest practices. But all of these rogueries and those perpetrated under the Desert Land Act in addition have been trifling as compared with those growing out of the Arrears of Pensions Act, yet nobody thinks of holding Senators who voted for this act responsible for the rascalities rendered possible by it. There is no more evidence that Mr. Sargent is culpable in the matter of the Desert Land Act than that Senator Logan or any other Senator who voted for the Arrears of Pensions Act is chargeable with the frauds of pension claim-agents. Nevertheless, the opposition

to Mr. Sargent on the part of a large and well-meaning section of the party was sufficiently pronounced to make his nomination for Secretary of the Interior unwise, and the President did well to reconsider his original purpose. He has now sent Mr. Sargent's name to the Senate as Minister to Berlin. We see no reason why the nomination should not be promptly confirmed. He is a man of marked ability and of large experience in public affairs, a good lawyer, and a gentleman by culture and instinct. We have small sympathy with the division of politics to which he is attached, but it would be unfair to deny him the possession of qualities which go to make up the equipment of a dignified and able representative of the country at a foreign court.

Mr. Blaine's memorial address on President Garfield contained nothing sensational or controversial. It told the story of his life with a certain plainness and simplicity which probably surprised those who only knew Mr. Blaine's style from his diplomatic papers. His judgments, too, were moderate and moderately expressed. He rates his hero highly, but not too highly, as a political philosopher and statesman; acknowledges his unfitness for the office of parliamentary leader, owing to the depth of his intellectual candor; tells of his conciliatory plans and projects with regard to the South, and disposes of the controversy which followed his entrance into office in a short passage of great dignity and reserve, in which he claims for the late President simply the merit of honestly believing his course to be that which the interests of the country and the dignity of his office called for. He says that this course was one from which, such was his dislike of controversy, General Garfield would willingly have receded if personal interests only had been involved. The passage in which he declares that General Garfield was deeply impressed with "the evils arising from the distribution of an overgrown and unwieldy patronage," and that had he lived, he would have proposed to Congress "a comprehensive improvement in the mode of appointment and in the tenure of office," would have been more effective if it had contained also an expression of Mr. Blaine's own feelings on this subject, he having been the late President's chief adviser on it at the period when it most perplexed him.

Mr. Thurlow Weed has written another of his amusing letters to the *Tribune* complaining of the prosecution of General Curtis, instituted by the Civil-Service Reform Association, for collecting assessments from Government employees. The prosecution is based on the United States statute which makes the offence with which General Curtis is charged a misdemeanor, punishable with fine or imprisonment. What makes Mr. Weed's letter amusing is that he takes no more account of the law than if it were a newspaper article, and censures President Arthur and Secretary Folger for winking at its execution, and deplores the withdrawal of Custom-house officers from their duties to appear as witnesses before the Grand Jury. He says that the contributing to cam-

paign funds which the statute prohibits and makes punishable, is "not only a privilege but a duty," and he apparently relies on General Curtis's gallant behavior at Fort Fisher to procure his acquittal. The letter, besides being amusing, is instructive, as showing how thoroughly imbued the old hands have been with the belief that the civil-service reform movement is a joke, and that any attempt to treat it seriously is, therefore, somewhat insulting.

Mr. Elihu Root has been called in to settle the curious controversy as to Mr. Conkling's greatness as a lawyer, and he says without hesitation that "he is a lawyer of the first class," and was nominated by the President simply as the best man for the place. Lawyers of the first class in any country are few in number, and their names must be well known, and therefore it is singular that there should be any dispute about it. What Mr. Conkling's opponents say is not merely that he is not a lawyer of the first class, but that he has no standing at the bar at all, and cannot support himself by his practice. Mr. Whitridge, in his article on Mr. Conkling published some months ago, stated that his argument in the well-known case of the *People vs. Dennison* in the Court of Appeals is not mentioned by any lawyer except as a laughing-stock; and two lawyers of repute who heard it said to the writer that "if it had been anybody else but Conkling, the court would have stopped him after the first fifteen minutes." In twenty years Mr. Conkling had six cases in the Supreme Court of the United States, while Garfield had thirteen, and Mr. Blaine, in his eulogy of the latter, declares that "though admirably equipped for the profession, he can scarcely be said to have entered on its practice." The *Tribune* publishes, from time to time, an extract from his argument in the Court of Appeals with a derisive heading, which it would hardly do except under the impression that the effort itself would tend to bring him into ridicule and contempt. Nominations to judicial offices are, of course, frequently followed by discussions as to the nominee's standing at the bar, but we believe Mr. Conkling is the first lawyer whose nomination to the highest tribunal in the country has been followed by a bitter dispute as to whether he has any standing or practice at the bar at all. The mystery is deepened when we reflect that he has been offered the Chief-Justiceship of the same court once before, and declined it as beneath his notice.

Judge Lowell, in the United States Circuit Court at Boston, on Thursday, rendered a decision in a libel suit against the *Advertiser* which is of interest to railroad constructors and managers, as well as journalists. The plaintiff Crane, it seems, tried to get control of the New York and New England Railroad, and the *Advertiser* discussed and criticised his plans and qualifications for such control in good faith and without malice. The court held that in doing so it was guilty of no libel, on the ground that the character of Crane was a matter of importance to the public, and therefore a discussion of it was among the regular duties of a newspaper. "The dis-

tingtion is that when a railroad is to be built, or a company to build it is to be chartered, the question whether it shall be authorized is a public one. When the company is organized and the stock is issued, anything which merely affects the value of the stock is private." This distinction is, however, rather fine. Under it, when a monopolist or an operator is organizing a new company, the press may point out that he is a notorious criminal or laid the foundations of his fortune in an act of successful embezzlement, but when the road is built, and he is engaged in a "bear" raid on the stockholders for the purpose of getting control of the stock, we must say nothing about him. This may be good law, but it will never work in New York or in any other great financial centre.

The Pennsylvania law taxing foreign corporations has been copied in this State, and the question as to its proper construction, now pending, is therefore of considerable interest here. The law provides that the capital stock of any corporation, foreign or domestic, *doing business in the State*, shall pay a tax based on dividends paid during the year; or, in case none have been paid, on the capital itself, at a valuation made under the act. For many years the act was construed in Pennsylvania, so far as foreign corporations were concerned, to cover only so much of the capital as was actually used in the State. The State, however, has now taken the ground that the tax must be paid on the entire capital, and has brought a suit against the Standard Oil Company, an Ohio corporation, to test the matter. In this State the act was interpreted last year by the Comptroller according to the view first taken, but now abandoned, in Pennsylvania. Should the decision of the Pennsylvania judges be in favor of the State, the law will probably have to be modified either in Pennsylvania or New York, or both. A statute requiring the taxation of the entire capital of corporations doing business in each State would, in the case of many corporations, result in double taxation of a very glaring character. Some corporations "do business" in every State of the Union—as, for instance, telegraph companies. Laws taxing them in this way might result in a confiscation of their entire property.

The Grant Retirement Bill has passed the Senate, many of the Southerners voting for it, ostensibly in order to prevent General Logan from making a sectional speech. In fact, the difficulty there is now in getting materials for such a speech is very great, and has sealed the fountains of much eloquence. The general silence about the South in the Stalwart ranks is one of the most curious phenomena of the day, because it used to be supposed that a stern and implacable view of the condition of the South was the central dogma of the Stalwart creed. This appears to be gone totally, but the disciples persistently refuse to tell what there is left. Dr. Newman said at the Stalwart dinner the other night that he was a Stalwart "from religious principle and intellectual principle," but he carefully avoided saying what the doctrine was to which his religious principle and intellectual principle had

caused him now to adhere. The South was, in the Stalwart eyes, in a highly dangerous condition up to March, 1881, and had been so for twenty years. What has produced the sudden quiet which, it would now seem, prevails in that region?

The appointment of M. Roustan as Minister to Washington lends a fresh interest to the verdict in his recent libel suit against Rochefort. The charges on which the suit was based were substantially that the expedition to Tunis was a stock-jobbing affair, to which M. Roustan was a party, and that in connection with it he allowed himself, while acting as Consul-General at Tunis, to become the tool of the low gang of adventurers who infested the Bey's court. For the publication of these charges in the *Intransigent* Roustan sued Rochefort, and the jury returned a verdict of not guilty. The result of the trial was generally accepted not merely as a vindication of Rochefort, but as leaving M. Roustan's reputation under a serious cloud. M. Roustan's friends, however, insist that this is unfair to him, and that the verdict settles nothing as to the truth of the charges. The French press law of libel differs from ours in many respects, but the Roustan-Rochefort proceeding closely resembled at all points what we should call a criminal libel case—that is to say, it was really a trial of Rochefort for the crime of defamation. In proceedings of this kind, under the French law, if the libel touches the private life of the complainant, the defendant is not allowed to prove the truth of his charges, but is punished whether they are true or false—in other words, the law is very much what it was in England and the United States in the last century. In the case, however, of publications relating to official conduct, the accused cannot be convicted unless the charges are false. If Rochefort had been convicted, therefore, the result would have been a complete vindication of M. Roustan; for it would have involved a complete disproof of the charges. His acquittal, however, does not by any means, as a matter of law, involve the opposite conclusion—that the charges were true. The jury may have found Rochefort “not guilty” because they came to the conclusion that he published the libel in good faith, believing it to be true, although, as a matter of fact, it was false, because he was misled by false information, or because he was not actuated by private malice, but by zeal for the public good. Therefore, M. Roustan's friends say, the verdict throws no light on the truth of the charges at all.

But the fact is—and the argument of M. Roustan's friends cannot obscure it—that while, in the present state of the law, the verdict turns technically upon the guilt or innocence of the libeller, still the truth of the facts has to be gone into, and the evidence as to them spread before the public; and the public will consequently draw its own conclusion as to whether a verdict of not guilty was really reached because the jury thought the facts were true, or because they thought there was a lack of criminal intent. In Roustan's case the public, examining the evidence as it was submitted to

the jury, made up its mind that the jury must have thought that enough of the facts were true to justify Rochefort in taking them up—in other words, that M. Roustan's proceedings in Tunis were scandalous. The argument in defence of M. Roustan therefore leaves the matter pretty much where it found it. He comes here under a cloud, and his appointment should, according to the traditions of European diplomacy, be regarded as a slight to our Government. Our practice, however, of rewarding stump orators of shady reputation with diplomatic posts abroad makes any resentment on our part at M. Roustan's appointment a matter of doubtful good taste, and perhaps the best thing we can do about it is to take the official view of the verdict, and to give him a cordial welcome to Washington. His appointment may in one sense be regarded as a compliment, for it looks as if the French Government were beginning to break loose from the old monarchical theories of diplomacy, and adopt our own view that one of the proper uses of a foreign service is to furnish places to politicians whose “claims” cannot be recognized at home without scandal.

All attempts to impugn seriously the justice of the reductions of rent made by the Irish Land Sub-Commissions have failed. Recently in Ulster the Commission sitting in appeal employed two of the most eminent valuers in the province to go over the farms on which the Sub-Commissioners had passed, and they came substantially to the same result. The Land Act has in its operation just reached the well-known Mr. Bence Jones, who did so much writing in the English papers last year and the year before in abuse of the Irish tenantry, and in glorification of himself. Nobody, he maintained, who was sober and industrious could have any difficulty in paying the rent on his farms in the County Cork, and he held that to complain of his rents was a virtual confession of idleness and intemperance. The Sub-Commissioners have just attacked his estate and played sad havoc with his just and reasonable rents, cutting down that of one farm from £82 to £59, and that of another from £126 to £86. The effect of all this on English opinion, in making clear the real nature of the Irish question, begins to be marked. In fact, the Commissioners are doing what no amount of discussion could have done in depicting the situation—an island with no industry but agriculture, and held in monopoly by a small class, who spend nothing on the land, and steadily follow the tenants' improvements with rising rents, while avoiding all the duties and responsibilities of any kind of leadership, moral, social, or intellectual, and in all cases in which the income is large living abroad, and making a very considerable contribution to the sporting and frivolous element in English society.

The rumor circulated in London that Mr. Gladstone means to resign in consequence of the inquiry instituted by the Lords into the working of the Irish Land Act, probably explains the object which the Peers had in view in setting the inquiry on foot. The enthusiastic support with which Mr. Gladstone's motion of censure on the Lords' resolution was received

in the House of Commons, indicates clearly enough that he will have no difficulty in inflicting a formal rebuke on this last attempt of the Peers to make remedial legislation in Ireland impossible. They have put their best man, Lord Cairns, in the chairmanship of the committee, and Lord Salisbury has explained that the committee is not intended to interfere with the working of the Act, but simply to see whether something cannot be done to right the grievous wrongs of the landlords. That the effect of it on the Irish farmer's mind will be, however, an impression that the Act is not a finality, there is little question. The Land Leaguers will certainly use it to produce such an impression, and the Ministers will therefore be justified in using every means at their disposal to show the Irish that it amounts to nothing and will amount to nothing.

A formal contradiction was hardly needed to dispose of the Tory story that Mr. Gladstone was so appalled by the difficulties in his path arising out of the House of Lords' inquiry into the working of the Land Act that he was going to resign. He is not going to resign, and will not dissolve Parliament unless he finds that he cannot obtain the changes in the procedure of the House which he considers absolutely necessary to secure the passage of the measures relating to England, which, now that Ireland is out of the way, constitute the Liberal programme. He has triumphed in the first move toward the censure of the Lords' inquiry, by carrying a motion for a postponement of the order of the day by 300 to 167. If he is forced to a dissolution, the most serious consequence will be a reinforcement of the Parnellites in the House. That their number would be doubled by a general election is considered a moderate estimate; that is to say, their strength would probably be increased from under thirty to over sixty.

The House of Commons has expelled Bradlaugh from his seat, nobody knows for what except that the majority thinks him a bad man, and does not like him. As the affair now stands, it is undoubtedly the most extraordinary in Parliamentary annals—much more extraordinary than the Wilkes affair, because when that occurred the powers of the House had not been settled as they have since been. Mr. Gladstone, who probably secretly sympathizes with the Conservative view of Bradlaugh, not only refused to treat it as a Cabinet question, but refused to vote himself, and his followers split—the Whigs voting for the expulsion, the Radicals against it. The only thing which can possibly furnish a justification for the House in the eyes of the public is the personal odiousness of Bradlaugh, who is considered not only an atheist, but an obscene atheist. If the Northampton electors should send him up again, however, and stick to him, the House would unquestionably have to back down in the end, and the more atheistical and obscene he is the more humiliating will the back-down be. The majority, it is said, already begins to be conscious of the difficulty into which it has got itself.

## SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

## DOMESTIC.

On Friday the President sent to the Senate the names of Roscoe Conkling, of New York, to be Associate Justice of the Supreme Court, and ex-Senator Sargent to be Minister to Germany. The nominations, especially that of Mr. Conkling, have excited great surprise throughout the country. They were reported favorably to the Senate on Feb. 28 from the Committees on the Judiciary and on Foreign Relations respectively, but no action was taken by the Senate.

The services ordered by Congress in commemoration of the life and public services of President Garfield were held in the hall of the House of Representatives on Monday. The feature of the occasion was the oration of Mr. Blaine, who acquitted himself in a manner universally acknowledged to have been graceful and appropriate. Much curiosity was shown by the audience in regard to the way in which Mr. Blaine would treat the political difficulties that preceded the assassination, and there was a "rustle and sigh of relief" at the termination of the passage in which the orator, with great tact and delicacy, reviewed this episode in President Garfield's Administration.

A member of the select committee to audit the accounts of the expenses of the sickness and death of the late President Garfield, gives the following as the corrected list of items which the committee will recommend: For Dr. Bliss, \$25,000; for Drs. Agnew and Hamilton, \$15,000 each; for Dr. Boynton, \$10,000, and for Dr. Edson, \$5,000. Surgeon-General Barnes is recommended for promotion to the rank of Major-General, and Surgeon Woodward to the rank of Lieutenant-Colonel. The committee will also recommend that there be paid to Mrs. Garfield an amount equal to the salary of the President from the date of his death to the end of the year.

On Friday resolutions were adopted in the Senate and House directing the Committee on Foreign Affairs to inquire and report concerning the abstraction of certain letters relating to the Chili-Peru complication from the files of the State Department, and also concerning the making of any contract, in Paris or elsewhere, by and between any foreign corporation or company and American citizens, in relation to any concession made by Peru to any foreign corporation wherein allusion was made to the diplomatic action of the United States.

The missing letters referred to in the resolutions are eight in number, five written by Mr. Shipperd to Mr. Blaine and three by Mr. Fisher to Mr. Blaine. The latter part of the resolutions refers to a contract, a copy of which has been published, alleged to have been made between the *Crédit Industriel* and the banking-house of Morton, Bliss & Co., of New York, of which Mr. Morton, American Minister in Paris, is the head, assigning to the said banking-house the sole agency in this country for the sale of Peruvian guano, the commission to be five per cent. The contract was to become void at the expiration of six years if the *Crédit Industriel's* contracts with Peru should fail to become operative and effective in consequence of the failure of the United States to mediate between the belligerents and thus secure peace and the recognition of the concessions, rights, and privileges granted to the *Crédit Industriel*.

On Thursday both Houses of Congress adopted a joint resolution, appropriating \$10,000 for the relief of persons in the districts recently overflowed by the Mississippi River. The inundated district embraces all the Mississippi delta between Memphis and Vicksburg, four-fifths of the population of which is composed of colored laborers, who will not have the means of support during the period for which this overflow will necessarily interrupt labor.

On Thursday the Senate passed the bill placing General Grant on the retired list, with

the rank of General and pay at the rate of \$10,125 a year. Thirty-five Senators voted for the bill and seventeen against it.

It is stated that the Appropriation Committee of the House has its work well in hand, and will be ready at any time, at two days' notice, to report two or three of the general appropriation bills, one of which, the Pensions Appropriation Bill, will probably call for an expenditure of \$90,000,000.

The House of Representatives passed the Post-office Appropriation Bill on Saturday, and the Military Academy Bill on Tuesday.

The House Committee on Naval Affairs has agreed to the report of the sub-committee, which recommends that \$10,000,000 be appropriated for beginning the construction of a new navy.

A resolution was adopted in the House on Saturday, for the appointment of a select committee of nine members, to which shall be referred all petitions, bills, and resolutions asking for the extension of the suffrage to women and the removal of their legal disabilities.

The Senate Committee on the Civil Service continued its regular weekly investigation of the subject on Saturday, by hearing Mr. George William Curtis.

Commissioner Dudley reports to the Senate that the records show that since July 1, 1876, 9,608 pension cases have been investigated, with the result that the names of 2,188 pensioners were dropped from the rolls and 1,976 pending claims were rejected. In 500 cases, in which the evidence of fraud seemed strongest, it is shown that there were over 3,000 false affidavits made and 113 cases of forgery.

The House Committee on Elections have resolved that Delegate Cannon is not entitled to a seat in the House as Delegate from Utah. The ground on which this decision is based is that the House has a right, at any time, by a majority vote, "to exclude from the limited membership which it now extends to Delegates from Territories, any person whom it may judge unfit for any reason to hold a seat as a Delegate." The reason for excluding Mr. Cannon is that he is not free from the "taint and obloquy of plural wives," and that, from his own admission, "he practises, teaches, and advises others to the commission of that offense."

The Census Bureau has completed the estimate of the population of Utah Territory. From this it appears that there are in the Territory 120,283 Mormons, nearly 37,000 of whom are of foreign birth, 6,988 Apostate Mormons, 820 Josephite Mormons, and only 14,156 Gentiles.

Large anti-polygamy mass-meetings were held in various cities throughout the country on Wednesday evening, at which speeches were made and resolutions adopted denouncing polygamy. On the same day petitions praying Congress to halt in legislating for Utah were presented for signature at "probably every house in the Territory." The children in all the Mormon schools were made to sign, and a great number of Gentiles were asked to sign.

The Legislature of Utah adopted a memorial to Congress on Saturday, setting forth that "persons whose aim is to gain control of this now wealthy and prosperous Territory and manipulate its finances," are at the bottom of the anti-polygamy movement, and that the measure before Congress, "while ostensibly aimed at the marriage relations of a small portion of the people, will, if carried into effect, deprive the whole Territory of its vested rights." The memorial then goes on to deny the charges which have been made against the Mormons, and accuses the representatives of the Federal Government in Utah of every description of wrong-doing.

A meeting was held in San Francisco on Saturday evening, at which were present delegations from the Chamber of Commerce, Board of Trade, and Board of Brokers, to ar-

range for a mass-meeting, irrespective of politics, to be held shortly, to express the sentiment of the business men of the community in favor of the Anti-Chinese Bill now pending in Congress.

At a dinner of the Merchants' Association, of Boston, on Saturday, Mr. Charles Francis Adams, jr., set forth, by request, his views on railroad legislation, and read the draft of a bill prepared by himself for the establishment of a Bureau of Inter-State Commerce, with a board of commissioners to be composed of an eminent lawyer, a practical railroad man, and a "statistician and economist." As men eminently qualified to fill these positions, respectively, Mr. Adams mentioned Judge Cooley, of Michigan, Mr. Robert Harris, General Manager of the Erie Railroad, and Mr. Francis A. Walker, recent Chief of the Census Bureau.

An important suit, involving a matter of much importance to corporations, has been brought before the Court of Common Pleas of Pennsylvania. The State of Pennsylvania has sued the Standard Oil Company for taxes, and the principle involved is whether the State has the right to tax such portion of the corporation's capital as is employed outside of the State.

It is stated that the case of General Fitz-John Porter has been several times before the Cabinet, and that indications point to the nomination of General Porter to be a Colonel of Infantry, which will carry with it, when confirmed, a relief from all disabilities imposed by the verdict of the original court in his case. A very elaborate defence of this verdict was made on Tuesday by Gen. J. D. Cox before the Army and Navy Society at Cincinnati.

The Flipper court-martial case is in the hands of Judge-Advocate-General Swaim, who is engaged in revising the proceedings of the court which recommended Flipper's dismissal from the service.

The trial of Sergeant Mason for the attempt to shoot Guiteau is now going on before the court-martial at Washington.

The steamship *Illinois*, having on board 325 Jewish refugees from Russia, arrived in Philadelphia on Thursday. They came mainly from the Province of Kieff, and from Odessa, and Warsaw, most of them being tradesmen and a few farmers. They were met on their arrival by the Citizens' Reception Committee and a corps of volunteer physicians, and every effort was made to minister to their health and comfort.

The annual dinner of the Massachusetts Democracy was held in Boston on Wednesday last.

There was a riot in Chicago on Tuesday, caused by a number of striking rolling-mill hands attacking a number of men who had been employed by the Union Iron and Steel Company to fill their places. The police were not in sufficient force to protect the workmen, who were pelted and hooded by the mob.

Señor Zamacona, Mexican Minister at Washington, has presented his letter of recall to the President.

Mrs. Caroline Leroy Webster, the second wife of Daniel Webster, died at New Rochelle, N. Y., on Sunday.

## FOREIGN.

In the House of Lords on Friday a committee proposed by Lord Donoughmore to inquire into the workings of the Land Act in Ireland was agreed to without a division. Lord Cairns was chosen chairman. Lord Salisbury stated in the House of Lords on Saturday that the object of the committee had been misrepresented. He said that it would neither try the Land Commissioners nor seek to repeal the Land Act, and that if any change were to be made, it would be in the direction of redressing the wrongs of the landowners rather than of diminishing anything which the tenants might have acquired by the act.

In the House of Commons on Monday, Mr. Gladstone moved the postponement of the orders of the day in favor of his resolution declaring that an inquiry into the workings of the Land Act would be injurious to the interest of good government in Ireland. The motion was adopted by a vote of 300 to 167. In moving his resolution Mr. Gladstone said that the course the Government proposed to take was one of extreme necessity, and that feeling the beneficial operation of the law was threatened by this action of the House of Lords, the Government desired to show the administrators of the Act that they had the House of Commons behind them. He then pointed out that the House of Lords committee was composed almost exclusively of landlords, and that it was inexpedient that the relations between landlord and tenant should be overhauled by the promiscuous inquiry of a prejudiced tribunal. The debate was then adjourned till Thursday. The situation is thought to be serious, since the Opposition and the Irish members, by resorting to moderately obstructive tactics, can prolong the debate on Mr. Gladstone's motion until the Easter recess. There are various reports to the effect that Mr. Gladstone is determined to resign on account of the continuation of the difficulty in dealing with Irish matters, but these rumors are said to be entirely without foundation.

Two hundred Liberal members of Parliament were present at a meeting held at Mr. Gladstone's house on Monday. The proceedings were private, but it was learned that Mr. Gladstone explained the importance of pressing his resolution, and that his views seemed to meet with general assent.

In the House of Commons on Wednesday a number of propositions were advanced to relieve the House from the difficulty in regard to Mr. Bradlaugh. Finally, during the discussion of Mr. Lyon's motion declaring Mr. Bradlaugh guilty of profanation and therefore incapable of sitting in the House of Commons, Mr. Labouchere demanded that Mr. Bradlaugh be heard at the bar of the House. The House received this motion unfavorably, and Mr. Bradlaugh thereupon passed the bar and took a seat. In consequence of this fresh act of disobedience, and because Mr. Gladstone refused to act, Sir Stafford Northcote moved that Mr. Bradlaugh, having disobeyed the chair and being in contempt of the House, be expelled. Mr. Gladstone supported this motion, which was carried by a vote of 291 to 83. A new writ for Northampton was then ordered, Mr. Labouchere stating that Mr. Bradlaugh would be a candidate.

Mr. Michael Davitt has been elected to Parliament from Meath to fill the seat made vacant by the resignation of Mr. A. M. Sullivan.

It is said that Mr. Parnell has just completed a week's solitary confinement in consequence of a warder having charged him with trying to bribe him and smuggle a letter out of prison. Mr. Parnell denied the charge.

A large meeting of cotton masters took place in Manchester on Wednesday. The chairman dwelt on the serious position of the trade caused by the decline in prices and the increase in stock. A resolution was passed unanimously declaring that it is necessary to cut down the production.

The Lancaster cotton manufacturers unanimously resolved, at a meeting on Tuesday, to close their mills for a fortnight before the 12th of April.

A meeting of the executive committee of the Mansion House Fund for the relief of the Russo-Jewish refugees was held in London on Wednesday, and a sub-committee was appointed to select places for the formation of agricultural settlements, attention being particularly directed to Palestine and the Canadian northwest. The sum of £10,000 was placed at the disposal of the sub-committee.

The Crystal Palace International Electrical Exhibition was formally opened in London on

Saturday evening. Experts state that it is even more complete than the exhibition recently held in Paris.

In the House of Commons on Monday Sir Charles Dilke, Under Foreign Secretary, said that Lord Lyons had been corresponding with the Mexican Minister at Paris, with a view to the resumption of diplomatic relations between Great Britain and Mexico.

The Prince of Wales, speaking at a meeting of the promoters of the International Fisheries Exhibition to be held in London in 1883, said he hoped the American Government would contribute at least as liberally toward the expenses of it as it did toward the Berlin exhibition.

The results of General Skobelev's recent speech are beginning to manifest themselves. One of the Russian newspapers states that henceforth precautions will be taken to prevent Russian public servants in high office from discussing matters of state policy on their own account. Meanwhile the Czar has ordered the General to return to St. Petersburg, and it is expected that he will be required to explain his speech. It is also positively stated that Prince Bismarck has demanded explanations from the Russian Government in regard to the matter.

It is stated in diplomatic circles in Vienna that General Skobelev's recall was mainly due to the representation by Prince Orloff, Russian Ambassador in Paris, of the personal intercourse which General Skobelev had begun to establish with French politicians of the *Revanche* party, and of the impression his speech had produced in Paris. It is also announced from Berlin that Prince Orloff has assured Prince Bismarck that the Czar is greatly offended at General Skobelev's attitude in Paris.

The trial of the twenty-one Nihilists, charged with "robbery, assassination, and attempted assassination," ended on Tuesday, Feb. 28. It is difficult to get any accurate account of the proceedings at the trial, which is said to have been conducted with greater secrecy, severity, and disregard of the ordinary usages of legal procedure than any political trial heretofore. The prisoners, only fifteen of whom were represented by counsel, were very disorderly and reckless. They all objected to the jurisdiction of the Court, on the ground that they were accused of crimes against the Government, which was an interested party, and the Court, therefore, which was the Government's organ, could not legally pass judgment upon them. One of the despatches states that they all pleaded guilty, except two, who pleaded an alibi. On Thursday, one of the prisoners, Sutchanoff by name, is said to have drawn such a vivid picture of the abnormal social conditions that had driven him to a career of crime that even the judges were deeply affected. All of the accused declared that they were Socialists and were willing to carry on a peaceful propaganda, but that they had been driven to illegal acts by the Government's cruelties. Ten of them, including one woman, were sentenced to death; the remainder to various terms of penal servitude.

It is officially announced that the Austrian column encountered 1,000 insurgents at Krstac on Thursday last, and after nine hours' fighting defeated them. Herzegovinian refugees are flocking in great numbers to Montenegro, and the Montenegrin Senate is discussing relief measures for them. Several thousand of them recently, becoming desperate in consequence of severe weather, broke through the cordon of Montenegrin troops, and are now said to be in a state of "indescribable misery."

The Austrians have lost 116 killed and wounded, including ten officers, in skirmishes with the insurgents in Herzegovina since the 16th instant.

The London *Standard's* correspondent at Constantinople says that the mobilization of

150,000 troops is projected, in view of probable complications in Bulgaria, which may make necessary the occupation of the Balkans.

A bill introduced into the French Chamber of Deputies by M. Tirard, Minister of Commerce, in regard to the importation of English goods, has been adopted. It authorizes the prolongation of the present treaty until May 15th.

Elections were held in France on Sunday to fill two vacancies in the Senate and fourteen in the Chamber of Deputies. With one exception, where a Bonapartist was elected, Republicans of various shades were successful. Five second ballots, however, will be necessary. M. de Freycinet, who was elected Senator in four constituencies, has announced his intention of sitting for the Department of the Seine.

A despatch from Paris states that the appointments of M. Roustan as Minister to Washington, and M. Cambon, formerly Prefect of the Department of the North, as Minister to Tunis, have been gazetted.

The French Government has resolved to modify the law relating to the expulsion of foreigners, so that every foreigner who has been convicted of a crime in his native country may be expelled from France immediately, without any formality.

M. de Freycinet, replying to an interpellation in the French Chamber of Deputies on Thursday, said that the situation in Egypt might have serious consequences; that England, perceiving this, had proposed to submit the matter to the powers. He further said that the French agent in Egypt had been instructed to assume an attitude of extreme reserve toward the new Government.

Mahmud Baroudi, President of the Egyptian Council, has written to the Governor of Sudan, informing him that the functions of the new Special Committee for the province will include taking steps to insure the complete suppression of the slave trade.

The Opposition in the Greek Chamber of Deputies has defeated the Government on the question of invalidating the recent election on the Island of Milo. This is the first trial of strength between the Government and the Opposition.

A London despatch from Madrid says that political circles in Spain are unusually animated. Resistance to the collection of the new taxes is increasing, and Señor Comacho, Minister of Finance, is materially injuring the popularity of his Cabinet by the severe measures taken against the leaders of the trade syndicates. The Cortes will probably be convoked in March, as the state of public opinion requires an early examination by Parliament of the financial policy.

Senhor Barbosa has introduced a resolution in the Portuguese Chamber of Deputies proposing an alliance between Spain and Portugal, on the ground that united nations need fear no foreign aggression; that they would be able to reduce their armies and navies to such a footing as would suffice for the requirements of their colonies, and that Lisbon and Oporto would become centres of intercourse with Brazil and the Spanish American republics.

Don Carlos has written to his representative in Madrid, apropos of the Spanish pilgrimage to Rome, that he does not intend to go to Rome, as he does not wish to cause the Pope any inconvenience.

Copies of an indictment covering twenty-six pages of folio have been handed to eight persons in Vienna, charged with contributing by their negligence to the recent fire at the Ring Theatre. Among the accused are the ex-burgomaster of Vienna, the manager of the Ring Theatre, and the chief commissary of the police. Two hundred and twenty-six witnesses have been summoned, and the trial will begin on the 2d of May.

TUESDAY, FEBRUARY 28, 1882.

## MR. CONKLING'S NOMINATION.

THE nomination of Mr. Conkling for the Supreme Bench has apparently taken everybody by surprise, and yet, when one comes to reflect on it, it seems the natural product both of President Arthur's own state of mind and of the policy he has thus far pursued in making appointments. It was folly to suppose that after having worked in politics for twenty years under Mr. Conkling's leadership, and having supported him in the disastrous contest at Albany over the Senatorship last spring, Mr. Arthur would, in consequence of anything that has happened, change his estimate of his friend's capacity and character. He probably feels about both as he felt a year ago. Mr. Conkling's immediate followers have an admiration for him which is nearly as great as Dr. Newmat's, though they would not express it in such extravagant language. There is no denying that in the peculiar system of political management which has grown up since the war, through the enormous increase in the Government patronage controlled by Senators, Mr. Conkling has attained the greatest excellence. There is no man who believes in that system and has formed part of it but must, therefore, rate his capacity exceedingly high, and think him fit for any place of dignity or trust. Indeed, one of the most curious features of the spoils system is the effect it produces on the imagination of those who work under it, as to the universality of talent which must belong to those who reach in it the rank of "boss." Mr. Conkling has for many years enjoyed among them the reputation of being a great statesman without ever having originated any important legislation, or shown much interest in any great question of the day; and the reputation of a great lawyer without ever having followed the profession of the law continuously or successfully. When he left the Senate last spring there did not seem to his friends anything ridiculous in the story that a New York firm had offered him a partnership with a guaranteed income of \$50,000 a year.

The President, too, has, ever since he began to make appointments, followed the plan of doing something for both factions of the party. He has managed to do so thus far with great skill and discretion. He has made no conspicuous selections from his own wing (except Mr. Howe's) that seemed decidedly objectionable, and has made some which were in every way creditable. He has moved so slowly, too, as to create a highly favorable impression as to his care and deliberateness. But he has probably felt from the very outset that it was not possible for him to let his old chief languish in obscurity and discredit without a certain amount of personal humiliation for himself, and without tacitly acknowledging the folly or malignity of the attacks made by his own political friends on the Administration of General Garfield. "Recognition," as it is called, of Mr. Conkling, in some shape has, therefore, been a necessity with him. It would perhaps have been asking too much of human nature to ask him not to give it.

"Recognizing" Roscoe Conkling is, however, no easy task, because recognition must be ac-

ceptable to the object of it to be of any real use. There is probably no office yet created by man, since the foundation of political society, which the ex-Senator considers entirely equal to his merits and powers, and yet all American offices are surrounded by legal restrictions, and the offices in the President's gift are not the most desirable. The only conspicuous or dazzling things he has to bestow are the foreign missions, the custom-house collectorships, and the United States judgeships. Collectorships are far beneath Mr. Conkling's notice. There is only one foreign mission which could have any attraction for him—that of London; but no one knows better than he that, even if he could get over his contempt for the exile which foreign missions involve, no man of prominence in public life is much less fitted than he either to shine or be comfortable in London society. There thus remained nothing but the Supreme Court, and it must be confessed that it is difficult to see how this can answer the President's purpose, whether that purpose be to satisfy Mr. Conkling or give the Court a good judge. It can hardly flatter Mr. Conkling now to offer him an associate-justiceship in the court of which ten years ago he refused the chief-justiceship. Moreover, if he is now engaged in making money by his profession, the salary of an associate justice cannot be very tempting. Besides this, he has been accustomed to living alone in whatever sphere he chose for himself. To have to share his authority with several others, and be compelled to agree with them, or be overruled by them, would, unless he has undergone some great spiritual change, be what quiet is said to be to quick bosoms. In fact, it would be difficult to conceive of a person less fitted as regards temper for a court containing many members, all of whom would probably consider him less well equipped than they for their common duties.

Of his fitness for the place, considered apart from his peculiar claims on President Arthur, we fancy there can be but one opinion. Men as violent in their partisanship, and as difficult in their temper, have many times before now made good judges. The history of the English bench is full of such cases. But we cannot recall any case in which a man was put on such a bench as that of the Supreme Court with so little preparation in the way of practice at the bar. Unless everything that lawyers have been saying for two thousand years as to the requirements of their profession be pure pretence, Mr. Conkling is a lawyer only in name, and must make a poor judge. He has passed his life in politics. The few briefs he has held have come to him mainly because he was a politician of prominence. Legal learning he has not, and cannot have, nor can his mind have that sort of saturation with legal habits of thought which has always been supposed to be absolutely necessary to judicial efficiency.

If President Arthur has offered him the place—as some have suggested—to fulfil a personal or party obligation to a political chief, and with the expectation that he will decline it, he has put the Supreme Court to a use which cannot for one moment be defended or excused. Nothing is more important—and nothing is more difficult—than to maintain popular re-

spect for such a court in a country like ours, in which the excitement of party politics searches every nook and cranny of the Government. Nothing is better calculated to bring it into contempt than the use of the judgeships as complimentary offerings the acceptance of which is not looked for. In fact, it is the duty of the President never to offer one of them without knowing that it will be accepted. It is not an office of which any President can afford to make little publicly.

For similar but still stronger reasons, it is not an office which any President can afford to use as a refuge for battered old friends, with whom the world has gone hard. The Custom-house has long—too long—served that purpose. It would be a most disastrous thing for the Constitution and the laws if the Supreme Court ever came to be looked on either by the politicians or the bar as a similar retreat. It is not now and never has been a place to which active politicians looked forward as a prize, and it is not desirable that it should be. But everything should be done to keep it as the goal of honorable legal ambition, and the reward of legal eminence. Time was when success in New York politics was, as in Mr. Seward's case, in no way incompatible with fitness for high judicial office. Perhaps that time will soon come again.

## RAILROADS AS PRIVATE PROPERTY.

MR. REAGAN, of Texas, being challenged last week by Mr. Wayne MacVeagh, who was arguing before the House Committee on Commerce against Congressional power of railroad regulation, to say what remedy he would propose for the admitted evils of railroad management, made answer that he would propose three things: A law denying the theory that railroads are private property; a law prohibiting them from "insulting the popular intelligence" by claiming the right to fix the cost of transportation; and a law prohibiting discrimination between places in fixing rates. We presume, however, that he would really embody all these things in one act. The second of his provisions it would be difficult to enforce, and would probably be made unnecessary by giving the State the right to regulate charges. If the corporations were not allowed to fix rates, they might be allowed to "insult the popular intelligence" by claiming the right to do so as much as they pleased.

It is very plain that in this, as in so many other cases, the extreme view of neither side is correct. The railroads, as they have been made in this country, are undoubtedly private property, as Mr. MacVeagh and Mr. Alexander, of the Louisville and Nashville Road, maintain. The American railroads have in the main been constructed with the money of individuals, and without any state guarantee, or protection against loss, except the land grants, with which many have been aided since the war. On the greater part of their cost—about fifty-two per cent., we believe—they pay no dividends. Very few of them have been made without loss to the first projectors, who have never received from either Federal or State Governments the slightest

countenance for the notion that their venture was not exclusively their own affair. In fact, it may be said in general terms that the railroads of the United States have been constructed strictly on the private-property theory, and that such state aid as has been given them has been given with the view of inducing them to push their lines into regions where there was no population, and to which the Government wished population to go. In no other country has the private-property theory been so fully recognized; and while hundreds of individuals have been enriched, hundreds of thousands have been ruined by it. So far Mr. MacVeagh has the facts on his side.

But, on the other hand, it is also true that no Government has ever recognized any such thing as absolute control by individuals of any kind of property. No man enjoys even possession of his house, except under conditions created for the safety, or health, or comfort of his neighbors. There is no older legal principle than that which makes your use of what is your own dependent on your not injuring what is your neighbor's. Every Government has applied this principle to all property the management of which greatly affects the public welfare or prosperity.

The most conspicuous illustration of it is the legislation of all countries with regard to landed property. Property in land has hitherto been the kind of property by which the whole community was most affected in health and happiness, and on which national prosperity has been most dependent. Accordingly there has never been anywhere absolute property in land. Legislation has everywhere and always bristled with restrictions on the use of it. The mode of acquiring it, as well as of holding it, is the subject of limitations to which personal property is not exposed. Moreover, there are few modern countries in which landed property has not passed through a process amounting to partial confiscation because absolute proprietorship had been found to work public injury. France, Prussia, Austria, Russia, have all gone through this process. Ireland is now going through it. England will probably very shortly go through it.

In the United States no mass of property has hitherto arisen the management of which has created interests really or apparently antagonistic to the public interest. We have not had, and are not likely to have for a long time to come, any land question, because we have still more land than we know what to do with. Railroad property has, however, undoubtedly begun, in its relations to the community at large, to furnish an analogy to European landed property. It has in its more absolute form begun to develop evils and inconveniences very much resembling those created in France, and Ireland, and England, by the concentration of land in the hands of a few owners over-conscious of their proprietorship. It affects the interests of commerce, and agriculture, and manufactures at so many points, in short, as to make the private-property theory untenable, and to make state interference not only justifiable but imperative, for the very reasons which call for the existence of government at all. Private property should be in every civilized state a very sacred thing, but no state was ever yet

willing to have its rate of progress diminished, or the comfort and safety of the bulk of its citizens sacrificed to the sacredness of any kind of property.

We may take it for granted, therefore, that there will be state interference here with railroad management before long. Nay, there must be; and it will, we trust, be attempted on neither Mr. MacVeagh's theory nor Mr. Reagan's. Railroads are private property, but private property with serious limitations; and in regulating them, as in regulating land tenures in older countries, the object aimed at, as long as the state is not ready to buy out the owners, is to interfere no more than is absolutely necessary, and to do as little as possible to diminish their attractiveness as an investment for prudent people. It is quite clear that the private-property theory is, even in the eyes of investors, rapidly breaking down. The victims of the pending "war" between the great trunk lines begin to see that they could hardly fare worse at the hands of a Government Commission regulating rates than they now fare at the hands of their own "kings" indulging in the royal pastime.

#### THE SCRUTIN DE LISTE IN ITALY.

TEN years of Italian unity and independence have passed, and, in the opinion of all impartial men, the representative system has proved an entire failure. Considering that only 600,000 out of 30,000,000 are electors, and that of these barely sixty-two per cent. take the trouble to register their votes, the Chamber of Deputies can scarcely be called a representative Assembly; still less the Senate, whose members are elected for life, nominally by the King, but in reality by the existing Government, whenever it wishes to carry a measure obnoxious to the majority of that august body. Under the present system the most striking individualities, whether for patriotism or for intelligence, have been used up and exhausted. Men such as Spaventa and Cairoli, pillars of their respective parties, have utterly lost caste through their ministerial failures; in short, every thinking member of the nation decided long ago that a very radical reform must be introduced into the representative system if monarchical institutions were to take root in the country. The Conservatives as a whole trembled at first at anything approaching to universal suffrage, fearing the inroads of the Republican workingmen. Many staunch Liberals, on the other hand, objected through the fear that the most disciplined party, which assuredly is the Catholic, would carry the day. Bills were brought in and shelved until outsiders took up the question thoroughly; hundreds of meetings in favor of universal suffrage were held, and the existing Ministry realized that the last shadow of their popularity would vanish if they did not satisfy the country with a sweeping measure of reform. Hence the Reform Bill recently passed, which is next door to universal suffrage, as all who can write the sacramental phrase, "I demand to be inscribed on the electoral lists," acquire the right in virtue of this simple act. The measure, passed by a large majority in the House, was slightly modified by the Senate, and, with their practical common sense, the Deputies, instead of

hesitating and cavilling, accepted the modifications in order not to postpone the passage of the bill, and the Ministry, with equal prudence, separated the question of the extension of the suffrage from that (far more complicated) of the *scrutin de liste*.

During the recess, however, the question was very seriously mooted and thoroughly sifted. Zanardelli, the ablest man in the Ministry, had in his report on the Suffrage Bill warmly advocated this measure as the only one tending to change the physiognomy of the House, which now, as is recognized by all, is composed of a large majority of mediocrities and, still worse, of jobbers. Able Conservatives, and as able Progressists, have drawn startling pictures, which but for the seriousness of the question would be also amusing, of the methods adopted for becoming a member of the Italian Legislature, and of the gymnastics and manœuvres necessary to keep the pledges given to electors. The purchase of votes by money is very unusual in Italy, but the successful candidate has to give more than money's worth in promises and pledges to his electors. Taken as a body, possibly, they want a railroad to pass through their town, or a bridge thrown over the neighboring river; separately, one wants the vacant pharmacy, another the right to open a shop for the sale of tobacco and salt (Government monopolies); posts under Government are wanted for the sons of everybody, advancement for those who have already obtained them. So, when the successful Deputy arrives in Rome his first care must be to obtain access to one or more of the Ministers and proffer his plea; and, with a dubious majority, Ministers again and again accede to the most unreasonable requests rather than disgust a new Deputy. This is one of the crying evils that the *scrutin de liste* will, it is hoped, put an end to, because local influences will have little weight with men no longer elected by a group of voters in the same town or commune, but by all the men of the same party throughout the province.

Another of the evils which the *scrutin de liste* is supposed to obviate is that of undue Government influence in favor of this or that individual. Under the Conservative Government this influence was used most unscrupulously: Government servants were sent in a body to vote; prefects and syndics were duly instructed as to what candidates they were to support. Less openly but scarcely less effectively has the influence of the Progressist Ministers been felt, especially in Naples, the hot-bed of intrigue, where Liberal Ministers in power set themselves openly to defeat the candidates of ex-Liberal Ministers, and in many cases succeeded. It is believed that it will be far more difficult for the reigning Ministry to influence a whole body of electors, throughout a province, in favor of a list of candidates, than single and separate electors in favor of a single and separate candidate. The large majority which voted for the *scrutin de liste* shows that much is expected from the measure by men of all parties; hence their approval of it, many of them saddling the vote with the proviso that they by no means intended it to be taken as a vote of confidence in the Ministry.

A minute analysis of the various systems of elections has been given by Zanardelli in his report on electoral reform, and he has also given the opinions of the ablest champions on either side. In Italy the adversaries of the *scrutin de liste* are able to cite Count Cavour, who once, in a long speech, expressed his fear that it would render the national representation altogether illusory. He maintained that the right of the elector consists in choosing as his representative the man whom he deems fittest to make the national laws and conduct the affairs of the country. How can he do this if the candidate who solicits his vote is unknown to him? Will it not be more difficult for him to select properly from men whom he does not know and who do not live in his own neighborhood, than from among his own citizens, whose lives and capacities are familiar to him? This is, perhaps, the most pertinent argument that has been brought against the scheme. The problem can only be solved by practical application, and, unless appearances deceive, the application will be most practical, for all parties seem inclined to enter the lists. Every day fresh supplications reach the Vatican for the withdrawal of the prohibition directed against all political action on the part of good Catholics embodied in the well-known formula—"neither electors nor elected." Bishops and archbishops, rectors and curates assail the Pope with assurances that they are losing all authority and influence over their flocks by this compulsory holding aloof from the essential questions of daily life; and the Pope, though carefully abstaining from any public expression, has authorized the clergy to see that their parishioners are duly inscribed on the electoral rolls. The first costly step thus taken, the rest will naturally follow.

#### THE BEGINNING OF THE SESSION.

LONDON, February 9, 1882.

EVER since the end of August, when what is called the vacation commenced, a brisk and uninterrupted political skirmishing has been in progress. Now that Parliament has at last met, the excitement grows, and people expect a hot and passionate session. The Tory party came back to London doubly sanguine, thinking that they possess abundant materials for assailing the Ministry, and cheered by the success which has attended them in several recent elections. They are panting for the fray. Few indeed suppose that in a House of Commons where the majority has been hitherto so constant to Mr. Gladstone, it will be easy to inflict on him an open defeat. The plan rather is to harass and worry the Liberals by damaging criticism, to seize occasions when lukewarm Whigs and Irish Home Rulers may be induced to vote with the Tories, and thus so to weaken the position of the Government as to goad them into dissolving Parliament, when a general election would either sensibly reduce the strength of the Liberals or possibly even give the Tories a majority. It is probably this hope of returning to power which has made the Opposition, and particularly their younger and less responsible leaders, so unusually active and so vehement of speech all through the autumn and winter. How far are their hopes justified, and on what ground do they rest?

The main ground of attack which the course of affairs furnishes is of course the state of Ire-

land. When the Land Act passed, most people (though not those who knew Ireland best) expected that it would soon begin to pacify the country; that political agitation would cease to be seditious; that outrages would diminish; that rents would be paid; that it would become easy to release from prison the persons confined under the act which last spring suspended the writ of habeas corpus. The great source of evil—the injustice suffered by tenants—once eliminated from the patient's system, why should he not recover? The first effect, however, of the Land Act was not a remission, but an exacerbation of the disease. The Land League saw its very existence threatened by the removal of the land grievance which it had been created to deal with, and its leaders, whose eyes were fixed on ulterior objects, were forced to choose, and choose speedily, between the loss of their hold on the people and the adoption of a pure revolutionary policy. They chose the latter, and called on the tenants, instead of taking advantage of the Land Act, to refuse the payment of rent altogether. Mr. Gladstone's Government thought that in such a state of things it was necessary at all hazards to give the act a fair chance, since it offered the best prospect of pacifying the country; and forthwith proceeded to dissolve the League, having thrown some of its leaders into prison. Thus the struggle became for the moment more bitter than ever. Although an immense number of tenants have applied to the court created by the Land Act, a good many have stuck to the League, refusing to pay rent, and in many parts of the country farmers who have paid up have been assaulted, beaten, wounded, or even killed. Thus Ireland remains in a very disturbed state. A large force of soldiers and police is needed to keep order; outrages are reported from many districts, and of course exaggerated by the Conservative press of Dublin and London; Kilmainham and several other jails are full of persons arrested on suspicion of being concerned in agrarian outrages or seditious schemes. The Tory leaders point to all this as a proof positive of the short-sightedness or weakness of the Liberal Government. "These are the fruits," they say, "of your tardiness in repressing the anarchy which began eighteen months ago. This is all the result you have obtained by a Land Act which shook the foundations of property. It was extreme enough to encourage and justify the revolutionary party, yet it has not satisfied them: it has only made the passion for complete emancipation from the payment of rent and from political connection with England angrier than it was before. Such is the fatal consequence of concessions to lawless agitation."

The Government, of course, answers that it has acted for the best; that the difficulties were not of its own making, but due to long-standing causes; that things would have been still worse had the Land Act not been passed. But, however true it may be that neither party is specially to blame for Irish discontent, the fact that this discontent has blazed out so fiercely while they have been in power tells to some extent against them in most people's minds. A government must expect to suffer for whatever misfortunes mark its tenure of office. It cannot be denied that Mr. Gladstone's Ministry has lost some of the prestige which it commanded eighteen months ago. It is, however, quite another thing to say that the country has lost confidence in it. The wealthier classes are, of course, hostile; they have been Tory in sentiment for the last ten years. But, for aught that appears, the constituencies—that is to say, the middle and poorer classes—remain where they were two years ago, when the general election of 1880 drove Lord Beaconsfield from power. They

think that property is in England safe enough, whatever may happen in Ireland; they have been so long accustomed to hear of disturbances there, as not to throw any special blame on any one government; and they have still a firm faith in Mr. Gladstone's personal greatness and uprightness. They are, however, not so actively eager in his support as they were in 1880. They have begun to weary of waiting for the domestic reforms which were then promised. They feel as if something more might have been effected for England by so large a Parliamentary majority as the Government possesses. In fact, they are becoming languid, and, unless some comprehensive measures such as they care for are brought forward in this session, this languor is likely to grow and to endanger the prospects of the Ministry. The programme which has just been disclosed in the Queen's speech is rather useful than stimulating. The creation of a system of local government for the counties, and of a municipal government for all London; the reform of the bankruptcy law and the patent law; the conservancy of rivers and prevention of floods, are all important objects, the attainment of which would be a substantial gain to the community. But they are not likely to touch popular feeling. None of them could be made a rallying-cry at an election. The first of them is no doubt a matter of very great consequence, but its consequence is as yet imperfectly appreciated, even in the rural districts; and while failure to carry the bill will be discrediting, success is hardly likely to receive the full need of praise.

In this comparative torpidity of their supporters, the Government have to thank their enemies for an unexpected piece of help. The extreme bitterness with which the Parnellite leaders have attacked Mr. Gladstone and Mr. Forster has all along done much to make those Radicals who thought their policy in Ireland too repressive rally round them, and to avert a schism between the more moderate and more pronounced sections of the Liberal party. Latterly, the Irish Land Leagues in England have resorted to something stronger than words: they have organized bands of those whom we call "roughs" and you call "hoodlums" to disturb or, if possible, break up the meetings which English Liberal members are accustomed to hold with their constituents during the Parliamentary recess. Not only in London, but in other parts of the country, such as Manchester and Newcastle-on-Tyne, meetings have been attacked by large gangs, usually armed with sticks. Sometimes the speaker's voice is drowned; sometimes the meeting is turned into a fight and dissolves in uproar. Such tactics are naturally irritating to the English workingmen, who retaliate by assembling prepared for a conflict, and, being far superior in numbers, can easily overwhelm the Irish. They were inclined to sympathize with the Irish national party against the landlords, and even against the Government; but when they see their own meetings disturbed and the members of their own choice assaulted, while Tory meetings are left unharmed, the old prejudice against the Irish revives, and they judge the coercive measures of the Government much more leniently. Disorder in public meetings has hitherto been regarded with surprising tolerance in England. It existed chiefly at election times, which were traditionally times of license; it was supposed to be rather a mark of English freedom and that sort of joyous exuberance, rough but good-natured, on which the English used to plume themselves. Besides, it was usually practised, in the days before the Reform Bill of 1832, by the popular party against those whom it considered oppressors. But during the Eastern-Question excitement, mobs belonging to the

anti-Russian or bellicose party used to break up by force the gatherings of the anti-Turkish party; and now the Irish in England are making the practice so common that before long those who have incurred their displeasure will have to appear in public surrounded by a bodyguard of martial committeemen. Such turbulence is so specially dangerous in London, with its vast floating criminal population, to whom a riot is a godsend, that if it continues the police will probably be instructed to interfere more actively for the protection of meetings than they have hitherto been permitted to do. The immediate result may perhaps be to isolate the Irish party and its members from English parties even more than has been hitherto the case. Whatever improvement there may be in the internal state of Ireland—and the agrarian crimes certainly seem to be steadily diminishing—the attitude of the leaders of the National party continues strenuously hostile to the Government. Whether it is true that a practical alliance has been concluded between them and the Tories will be shown in the debates and divisions on which Parliament is now entering, and which promise to rival or surpass the heat and passion of last year. Y.

#### THE FELLAHEEN AND THE MONEY-LENDERS.

ALEXANDRIA, January 31, 1882.

THERE are some industrial and commercial features in the present condition of the Delta which attract less attention in the European papers than the more conspicuous political movements of the country, and yet are in everybody's mouth here, and are probably more important in themselves than many acts or events which more readily lend themselves to description in correspondence-letters. It is well known that from the time of the deposition of Ismail and the establishment of the European Control, the Fellaheen, or the body which includes all the smaller peasant proprietors and the better class of agricultural laborers, have been relieved from the odious abuses of taxation under which they have long suffered, and which are familiar to every student of the administrative system prevailing in a Turkish province. Every conceivable abuse of taxation reached the highest point of development. The taxes were levied in an endless variety of more or less irritating ways, all burdensome, incommensurate, and oppressive; they were levied at the most inconvenient times; they were uncertain in amount, and occasionally could not be distinguished from mere arbitrary confiscation. The new Government and the European Control, in carrying out the recommendations of the "Commission of Inquiry," changed all that, and changed it effectually. Throughout the length and breadth of the land—as I can testify from my own inquiries and observations, pursued during a seven months' journeying up and down the country last year—all sense of injury from taxation has vanished. The taxes are now few, definitely ascertained, levied at convenient times, and of moderate amount. By a recent enactment, which has just received the consent of the Governments concerned, the immovable property of resident strangers is for the first time rendered subject to taxation.

It might be supposed from all this that a career of unexampled prosperity was opening upon the humbler classes in the country; the more so as there has been no recurrence of the famine that desolated the country three years ago, and for the last two years the Nile has, in a larger sense of the current phrase than is usually covered by it, "come up to the mark." But a new phenomenon has manifested itself

which has plenty of examples in other countries, and especially in India. The petty proprietor of land, who is at once greedy for money and reckless, within honest limits, as to the means of obtaining it, and the uses he puts it to, does his utmost to get hold of a little capital for the improvement of his estate. He needs to pay for extra labor; he needs either a *sakia* or a *shadoof*, or the use of a coöperative modern pump (this last being still rare), to water his ground. He needs seed-corn and the simple instruments of agriculture, which scarcely differ from those still visible as painted on the walls of tombs thirty or forty centuries ago. Lastly, he needs support for himself, his family, and his laborers, if he has any, during the time that he is waiting for his crops to grow, or at least till he can raise money upon them while scarcely yet above the soil. It must be remembered that, owing to the late famine and oppressive taxation, he sets to work with no capital, and is fortunate if he has not already started in debt.

His first recourse is to one of the numerous so-called "banks" which abound in Cairo and Alexandria and have branches throughout the country. All but a few of these banks are banks only in name. They are really companies of money-lenders, who are ready to advance any amount of money asked for, at a rate of interest which is sufficiently low, and on no other security than that of the applicant's land. I was told the other day, by a leading European proprietor of land at an inland town on the line between Cairo and Alexandria, that the practice is for the needy farmer to betake himself to the bank, and not to ask for a definite loan on the security of his field or fields, but first to offer his field or fields as security, then to ask how much money he can obtain upon them, and always to take as much as he can get. This report I find confirmed on every side. The Egyptian Arab presents a curious combination of love of money with impecuniousness and improvidence. He is said, by those who know him best in his business relations, to take no thought of the morrow, and to care only how much money he can get to-day. The banks know well enough how good and sure is the security offered them, and they have no inducement to obstruct business by asking for high interest, their competition being with each other for obtaining the valuable security offered. The result can easily be foreseen, and is already displaying itself in a menacing way. The village population are becoming more and more pauperized and dependent on the money-lenders for even the means of life. The banks are realizing their securities, and, in order to recoup themselves, selling the mortgaged lands to capitalists or farmers on a large scale, whether European or native, resident on the spot, who possibly employ the old owners as their laborers, so far as they need them, by way of supplement to the steam-engines and improved machinery which they bring to bear on the cultivation of cotton, maize, rice, *dura*, barley, or other products indigenous or exotic.

It need not be said to those who have studied land questions in a scientific spirit, that in this state of things a land problem is at hand having the gravest political bearings. Unless some stop to the process is put by legislation, by the education of the natives, or by the casual transformation of habits, it is evident that all the land of the country which does not belong to the Government or to religious corporations will be taken out of the hands of the mass of a population which, like the Irish and the French, are eminently agricultural in their habits, and accumulated in the hands of a limited number of rich people, mostly foreigners. The very same problem has within the last few years presented itself in British India; but, happily, the means

of meeting it were at hand to a degree which never could be the case here, or perhaps in any other country. The British Government is at once absolute in India, and the scene of operation is sufficiently far removed from Europe to encourage the local government to adopt a bold legislative remedy without the apprehension of creating dangerous precedents at home. The Bengal Rent Commission recommended a trenchant mode of cutting short the claims of money-lenders, of vindicating the proprietary rights of the impoverished farmers, and of relieving the monetary pressure in a way which, under the circumstances, seemed most equitable to all parties. These recommendations are in course of being carried into effect. In Egypt the Government is of the weakest. The whole attention of the European Controllers is naturally concentrated on the Government lands, which are mortgaged for the European debts, and, as no reasonable charge can be made against the banks or private capitalists of fraud, of extortion, or even of overreaching, it would be difficult to upset the voluntary contracts which are made with the poor Fellaheen.

There is some talk of establishing what is called a national bank, the purpose of which is to act as an intermediate agent between the European bondholders and the cultivators of the soil. It is alleged that the European managers of the Daira estates, mortgaged for the debt, do not obtain as much revenue from the soil as would be obtained by a private and native company personally interested in the amount of the proceeds. It is not indeed probable that the Governments concerned, or the bondholders, will allow the eminent administrators they have appointed to be superseded under the speculative possibility of leaving a larger margin of profit for the benefit of the country, especially as that extra profit might be obtained by processes of exaction not congenial to European habits. The project, however, has been a good deal discussed here, especially in its obvious political bearings. It is worth while to mention it in connection with the state of things above described, in order to show that some such institution, under strong Government control, and subjected to the requirement of a comprehensive land-law, would meet the difficulty. It might serve as a vehicle for advancing on easy terms small amounts of capital really needed for the bona-fide cultivation of the soil, and dispense with what is, in effect, the oppressive condition of taking the soil out of the cultivators' hands. A.

#### YRIARTE'S RIMINI.

PARIS, February 8, 1882.

M. CHARLES YRIARTE is a writer of a new school—a critic of art who is at the same time a traveller, an artist, and an amateur. He has published on Florence and on Venice two works which are monographs of those famous cities, and which represent, with their fine illustrations in historical development, hundreds of volumes which it is almost impossible to find. It would not be just to call such works guide-books: they are of a much higher class—they are real art-treatises. But 'Florence' and 'Venice' contain only matter which can be found in other places; M. Charles Yriarte's new volume, on Rimini, is superior to them in one point—it contains much original matter. It is a chapter of history as well as of art, and it must, as such, find its place among the most important works on Italy.

Instinctively, Yriarte has found the true method of writing the history of Italy. After the downfall of the Roman Empire, Italy ceased to exist as a unit: it fell into an atomic state—each town became a little world in itself. By degrees two powers emerged from the chaos of

the Middle Ages, the Papacy and the Empire. "Le Pape et l'Empereur sont tout," as *Don Carlos* says in "Hernani." The communes of Italy looked to one or other to find a protector of their semi-barbarous independence. The military chiefs, the tyrants of the communes, enrolled themselves in the army of the Pope or in the army of the Emperor, to whom they bound themselves by a *feudum*, by an investiture. At first captains of a few soldiers, mere *condottieri*, they became the vicars of the Holy See or of the Empire: the Scaligers of Verona, the Sforzas, the Estes, the Malatestas, the Gonzagas, all began by commanding a troop of horse for some potentate—for the Pope, the Emperor, or Venice, or Florence. Gian Galeazzo Visconti, a mere *condottiere*, died master of all Lombardy, from the Alps to the Adriatic; his army was the largest Italy had ever seen; his wealth was boundless.

Rimini is hardly known by those who have not travelled in Italy. If it were not for Dante and his Francesca da Rimini, the name of this little city lying on the coast of the Adriatic would be hardly ever pronounced. Rimini became, in the Middle Ages, the domain of a family of *condottieri*, the Malatestas. In the twelfth century the Malatestas conquered nearly all the March of Ancona and a part of Romagna, and had a number of strongholds on the hills of the Apennines. The history of this curious dynasty may be summed up in two words—they were brigands and artists. They personified this extraordinary combination of qualities and of vices which gives so much originality to the Italian Renaissance—the love of art and the love of war, unbridled passions and veneration for knowledge, classic tastes and barbarous instincts. Yriarte traces the Malatestas as far back as 1130. The true founder of the dynasty was Malatesta of Verucchio, the first Guelph chieftain of the Romagnas, who lived a hundred years, and was stigmatized in Dante's *Ghibelline* verses. The eldest of his sons was the murderer of Francesca da Rimini and of his own brother, Paolo (*il Bello*). The successor of the murderer (surnamed *il Sciancato*, the lame) was the Malatestino del Occhio, of whom Dante says:

"E l' mastin vecchio e l' nuovo da Verucchio.  
Che fecer di Montagna il mal governo,  
Là, dove soglion, fan de' denti succhio."

We cannot follow Yriarte in the genealogy of all the Malatestas, of the lords of Pesaro, of Rimini, of Fano. The branch of Rimini soon became the most important. In the year 1400 we find Rimini already a great centre of art. Carlo Malatesta, though a *condottiere*, surrounded himself with artists. He gave employment to Ghiberti, who afterward made the famous doors of the Baptistery of Florence; he founded the first Italian Academy; he himself painted miniatures on manuscripts. Rimini became very prosperous under his administration. His successor forms an exception in the family; he is called Galeotto the Saint; he had ascetic tastes, and entered the order of the Franciscans. The nephew of Galeotto, Sigismondo, is the most famous of all the Malatestas; he was one of the greatest warriors of his time, and was also one of the most active supporters of the movement of the Renaissance in favor of the classic and of the Latin and Greek writers, who during the Middle Ages had been despised and forgotten. "Of all the princes of the fifteenth century," says Yriarte, "he represents best, perhaps, the tendencies of an epoch during which, under the high culture of the early Renaissance, appears still the man of the Middle Ages, with his rudeness, his brutality, and his indomitable character." Sigismondo was brave, handsome (as his medals well show), eloquent; he seemed to be

made of iron, and knew not fatigue. He was violent, heroic in battle, always ready to use a sword or a poniard, in peace as well as in war. He had the soul of a bandit, and his frantic desires knew no bounds. Some of his crimes are so dark that they cannot be told here. At the same time, this slave of the senses was the slave of art; he positively worshipped philosophy, poetry, architecture. He was like a pagan among Christians—faithless, without conscience, without pity. His enemy, Æneas Piccolomini, who became Pius II., accused him of heresy for having raised a pagan monument, wherein no statue, no image, no inscription, nothing alluded to the Deity. Pius II. wrote, however, about him that "he knew all antiquity, was very advanced in philosophy, and seemed born to do all that he undertook." Burckhardt says of him: "Audacity, impiety, military talent, refined intellectual culture—how many qualities and gifts were united in that one man!" This born rebel, this man overflowing with criminal passions, was beloved by the soldiers, by the people, and by his own family. His life reads like a novel; it is almost unreal. He seems too gigantic for the small proportions of the towns and the provinces where his intense activity was spent.

The name of Sigismondo will always be connected with the name of Isotta. She was the daughter of a merchant; a musician, a poet, an artist. Sigismondo fell in love with her, wrote verses for her, which Yriarte has found in the Vatican Library. He was married twice, but did not conceal his passion for Isotta. His court poets had to sing her charms; his artists had to paint her, to make medallions of her (these medallions are extremely interesting as monuments of art), or busts, or statues. In all these representations Isotta does not appear a great beauty. She was intelligent; she lived in the constant study of history, of philosophy, of poetry; she was a friend rather than a mistress, an Egeria rather than a Delilah. Pius II. speaks of her as a superior woman. After many years she finally became the legitimate wife of Sigismondo.

The campaigns of Sigismondo Malatesta interest us less at the present time than the monuments he has left behind him. The most extraordinary is the "Temple of the Malatestas," otherwise called San Francesco. An inscription in Greek on one of the pillars of the façade says that "Sigismondo Pandolpho Malatesta, son of Pandolpho, having safely emerged from the frequent and serious dangers which threatened him during the wars of Italy, in which he operated with as much energy as luck, vowed, in the midst of these conflicts, to build a temple to the Immortal God in the city of Rimini. He erected it with a generous munificence, and left in this world a very illustrious and holy memory." San Francesco is now the cathedral of Rimini, but it has preserved its character as a sort of temple and Pantheon, as it contains the tombs of all the Malatestas and of all the scholars and poets of the court of Rimini in the fifteenth century. It is certainly one of the most curious monuments of Italy. Its principal architect was Leon Battista Alberti, who used an ancient church as a frame, and surrounded it, as it were, with a marble envelope, thus taking a monument of the thirteenth century, belonging to the Franciscans, as his framework for a temple of the fifteenth century. Alberti is well known by the numerous works which he executed for the Medicis and for the popes. He was a writer as well as an architect, and, being a man of very high culture and of a great family, he was intimate with the greatest men of his time. In the Temple of the Malatestas he showed the Italians the first façade executed in what is called the style of the Renaissance. He forsook Gothic forms and returned to the models of an-

tiquity, inspiring himself with the lines and forms of the arch of Augustus, which is seen on the Via Flaminia. The ornamentation was new, personal, and original; it showed the ciphers of Sigismondo, of Isotta, the rose and the elephant of the Malatestas, crowns of flowers and fruits, garlands and ribbons, reminding the spectator of the crowns of the old Greek temples. This great simplicity of form, allied to rich and almost profuse details, was something quite new at the time, quite different from what was seen in the basilicas of the Middle Ages. The interior of the Temple has the same character—simplicity of form, nothing but circles and straight lines, and with this an extraordinary wealth of details, all peculiar and expressive, having a personal character, without any monotony. There are eight chapels; each is a work of art in itself. Their sculptures are allegorical, are a mine of symbols and emblems, and are in the highest degree expressive and suggestive. They are now almost the only archives of this great family of the Malatestas; the only monuments of past greatness, of military glory; the only relics of hope and of ambition.

Yriarte enters into the most minute description of these monuments. The illustrations of his work make them appear again under our eyes, sometimes with details which it is difficult to perceive in the Temple itself. But what can give the general impression of this holy place of Italian art, with its fine marbles softened by age, its innumerable shades, its harmony of lines and of proportions, its rich simplicity? Outside, under the exterior arcades of the outer wall which surrounds the shell of the thirteenth century, are sarcophagi of the most simple antique form, the tombs of the philosophers, the poets, the artists of the court of Rimini. Among the number are Basinio di Basanii, a poet and pensioner of Sigismondo; Giusto de' Conti, the author of the "Bella Mano"; Gemistus Pletho, a Platonian philosopher; Roberto Valturio, the author of "De Re Militari," and some others, who were doctors or philosophers.

The end of Sigismondo's life was troubled with many wars. He died at the age of fifty-one years, the victim of his ambition, having lost nearly everything but Rimini, and having had to fight in turn or together nearly all the princes of Italy. His successors slowly sank to the rank of private noblemen, and did not succeed in establishing independent duchies. Venice was too near and too powerful; the court of Rome was too ambitious. Rimini was so placed that it could not long remain a centre of sovereignty. Posterity must remember this extraordinary family of the Malatestas, equally remarkable for their soldierly qualities and for their enthusiasm for the fine arts. They are, with the Sforzas, the Medicis, the Estes, typical; they mark a moment in the development of civilization. They are in Italy what the last Valois afterwards were in France.

## Correspondence.

### THE PROGRESS OF "READJUSTMENT" IN VIRGINIA.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: To the Northern Republicans who honestly think that the dominance of the Readjuster, or "Liberal," party is a blessing to Virginia, I would, through the *Nation*, make a statement of facts as calm and dispassionate as possible.

This party, since coming into power, has clearly shown its policy, and has vigorously executed it. It has given to West Virginia one-third of Virginia's entire debt, and has lopped off one-third of what remains. It has fulfilled none of its promises of retrenchment except with regard to

the debt. When a Debt-payer was Governor, it passed a bill abolishing the office of Governor's Clerk, and Governor Holliday had to pay his clerk from his own pocket; but no sooner does Governor Cameron come in than it gives him an appropriation for his clerk and \$10,000 for refurnishing the gubernatorial mansion. In other appropriations it has shown how little it cares for saving public money, and how well it takes care of its own.

It has turned out of office every man whose political tenets do not conform to its creed. The guillotine in France was not more deadly or far-reaching than is political beheading under order of our Marat. We are not surprised, knowing the civil-service system of our land, when postmasters and clerks are dismissed for political reasons; but what have we to say when educational boards, college professors, and judges are removed to make way for partisans? A bill, recently passed, declares the boards of the Virginia Military Institute and of the Lunatic Asylums vacant on the 2d of March, next following. The members of the board of the Virginia Agricultural College have already been removed and replaced by Readjusters, who, with unseemly haste, met and dismissed President Buchanan, late of Vanderbilt University, and a former president at Emory and Henry College in this State, to make way for a gentleman who saw the hand-writing upon the wall, and at the eleventh hour became a convert to Readjustment. In the few short weeks of their rule the board have dismissed three professors of this college. A bill is at present before the Legislature to appoint a new board of visitors for, and to reorganize, the University of Virginia. Is not this state of affairs alarming—not to office-seekers of the other party alone, but to every one who loves a pure and just government? Are we as a people becoming so indifferent to the fundamental principles upon which our free institutions rest that we will approve of such means if only they be used by our party?

But while this state of affairs is bad enough, the present condition of Virginia is worse. Scores upon scores of judges have been and are being removed from the bench, and their places are being filled with not only partisan, but ignorant men. The Readjuster party has not the material in its ranks to fill with competent persons the vacancies it creates. Here in Albemarle County, which contains the University of Virginia and the homes of Jefferson, Madison, Monroe, and Wirt—which has between twenty-five and thirty thousand inhabitants, a large percentage of whom are highly-educated people, and at whose bar about thirty lawyers practice—not one man with even a general education could be found in the party to fill the judgeship; and to this position was elected a man who was qualified neither by abilities nor by attainments. Our Constitution provides that such a judge shall be "learned in the law," and yet the Judge of Albemarle County had not so much as read a page of Blackstone in his life when elevated to the bench. We considered ourselves fortunate, however, in getting him, as he is an honest man; for the person whom the Readjuster caucus had nominated before him was of a character more fitting culprit than judge. The representative from this county had evidence on the floor of the House to show that he was a horse-thief, and I will do the Legislature the credit of acknowledging that when this fact became known they dropped him, and they then gave us the present incumbent. I use my own county as an illustration; other counties are not so fortunate as Albemarle. These are but a few of the facts that might be mentioned, and they may be easily verified. Do they not sound strangely?

There was a time in Virginia when the petition of a large majority of the citizens of a community had some weight in the appointment or election of its public officers. Now we know nothing but the absolute power of a sole dictatorship, and, in addition to the stigma of dishonesty, Virginia has to suffer the curse of an ignorant and too often unscrupulous judiciary.

DAYLESFORD.

CHARLOTTESVILLE, VA.

#### SHALL THERE BE AGNOSTIC CHURCHES? TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your editorial article on Agnostic Churches you say: "All attempts to build up an agnostic church are futile." With all due respect, it seems to me that neither is your conclusion correct in reason nor does it coincide with our actual experience. For twenty years Mr. Frothingham was the "priest" of an agnostic church. Mr. John W. Chadwick, of Brooklyn, has preached agnosticism for years. Mr. Conway, of London, has done likewise. I believe that the late Mr. John Weiss was, during his lifetime, an apostle of agnosticism, and the members of his society were his disciples. Other illustrations might be given of agnostic churches—agnostic practically if not nominally—which have flourished and prospered in this country and in England. But we claim that, even though not a single agnostic church had ever existed or does now exist, that fact would not establish the futility of all attempts to build up such a church. True, if we base our argument on that which was expounded by Mr. Miln in his last Sunday's discourse, we candidly admit that the conclusion would be irresistible that agnostic churches cannot be established. In other words, if in such churches we are to meet for ethical culture, then we agree such churches have no logical right to exist. Mr. Miln, in last Sunday's discourse, started out to say that all beliefs owe their origin to the religious sentiment. He said, too, in almost the exact words of Mr. Herbert Spencer, that the religious sentiment is a constituent part of man's nature. Now, had Mr. Miln carried out this idea to its logical conclusion, he could not have prophesied that the religion of the future would only concern itself with ethical culture. If his premises are correct, then the religion of the future must be a product of the religious sentiment, and must concern itself with the cultivation of that sentiment. For, necessarily, as long as the religious sentiment remains, there must be a religion to correspond with the sentiment. Ethical culture, however, has different functions than religious culture. The one appertains to what our conduct should be toward ourselves, our family, and society; the other to the relation existing between the mind of man and that inscrutable Power which lies behind phenomena and passeth all understanding.

And now, Mr. Editor, why can there not be builded agnostic churches whose function it shall be to cultivate the religious sentiment, which is said to be an attribute of all men? Why can there not be preachers whose duty it shall be to speak of the transcendent Mystery, and to cause men to forget their petty cares and strifes while dwelling upon a contemplation of that Mystery? You say yourself that "it is a strong proof of the deep hold which religion has on our race that an Englishman or an American will do almost anything rather than cease to talk or to think about matters of which he believes himself to know nothing." You will certainly admit that talk and thought on such matters conduce to the culture of men, and if yea, why should these Englishmen and Americans not meet once a week in some common place and there indulge in talk and thought

on such matters, or rather there listen to the talk and thought of some refined and cultured preacher of such matters? The "common place" would be a church. Such churches do now exist, and they do much toward making their members better and nobler men.

AGNOSTIC.

NEW YORK, February 21, 1882.

[Our correspondent is either mistaken about Mr. Frothingham and Mr. Chadwick, or about the meaning of the term "agnostic." Mr. Frothingham's church was certainly not agnostic. He professed to believe in and address in prayer, if not the Christian God, "an intelligence at the heart of things." So, we believe, did Mr. Chadwick. When they prayed they prayed to something or somebody. A genuine agnostic does not occupy himself with anything supernatural, because he knows nothing about the supernatural. What can "the religious sentiment" be in a man who has no religion except a sense of the mystery which surrounds life; and if this mystery be "transcendent," which we suppose means insoluble, how can a genuine agnostic either preach on it or listen to preaching on it? The essence of agnosticism consists in the abandonment of all attempts to know the unknowable. A person who "tried to forget his petty cares and strifes in contemplating Mystery" would be doing the very thing which the agnostic creed forbids, and if he were a genuine agnostic would get no good out of it. The contemplation of mystery as mystery is not recommended by any church. Christians contemplate mystery because it increases their reverence and admiration for God, but it can have no such effect on an agnostic. To him the whole world is a mystery which he cannot solve, and which it would be sheer waste of time to keep thinking about.—ED. NATION.]

#### COLLEGE DISCIPLINE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: You admit that the elective system as respects college studies may be carried to an extreme. I would add that perhaps our more conservative colleges are as near the true "between" ground as those which change more rapidly.

You also think the ordinary American college does not give the discipline as to the need of which you agree with me. I reply, it does in part—it makes some approach to it; and the smaller college more than the larger, and the conservative much more than the more changeable. This, I think, will hardly be denied by one who knows.

Respectfully,

C. W. CLAPP.

GODFREY, ILL., Feb., 1882.

#### HUNGARIAN MUSIC.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Your issue of January 19 contains among the "Notes" the following statement: "Those wild and unmethodical Hungarian pieces which, according to Liszt, his countrymen owe to the Gypsies." I read a similar statement in *Harper's Weekly* of Oct. 4, 1881.

Both your and *Harper's* correspondent may have heard of or read Liszt's 'The Gypsies and their Music in Hungary,' but, not having continued their research further—not having read the numerous comments on this work published in France, Germany, and Hungary—have been misinformed. Liszt published the above

work in French in 1859, and it was translated into German and Hungarian. The *Revue des Deux Mondes* at once took notice of it, and through this medium its contents became known to the world over.

Liszt, who spent most of his lifetime in Germany, and was unacquainted with the present of Hungary, and more so with her past, wrote history founded on hearsay, to suit his own fancy. The world, judging by appearances, accepted his statements as facts. Was not the author one of the greatest piano-performers? Should not he who gained laurels all over Europe with this same music—himself of Hungarian descent—be a trustworthy judge, thoroughly posted on the subject? The information conveyed by Liszt's work "seemed" to prove that "Hungarian music is not Hungarian, but Gypsy, music."

This unfounded, audacious assertion was the more painful to the Hungarians as it was uttered by a compatriot who would have been the pride of any European nation, and was pronounced at a time when the Habsburg Government had deprived them of their constitution, and destruction threatened even their nationality. The Hungarian daily press rose up against it with a unanimous outcry; many a writer grasped the pen and took part in the strife with historical data, arguments, witticisms. Two pamphlets, one written in German by Alexander Czeke, the other by the Transylvanian savant Samuel Brassai, written in Hungarian, investigated the matter thoroughly: the first from a musical point of view, the latter in its relation to the language and people of Hungary; both proving Liszt's fallacy. Stephen Bartalus also wrote several vindictory articles in the *Budapesti Szemle*, and the matter is at this day not one of belief, but of facts. After being long dropped by Hungarians, as a question thoroughly drained and settled, Alexander Bertha again brought it to public notice, as late as 1878, in an able article in the *Revue des Deux Mondes* (for August 15). Bertha says:

"Any one unacquainted with Hungarian music can hardly delineate the talent of the Gypsies. Even when they play well-known pieces, waltzes and marches, their performance is so peculiar in character that we forget to apply the regular rules of art. The appearance of a Gypsy band without notes, the unusual sight of the E-flat clarinet and cymbal, the unquenchable fire of their performance—all tend to keep the listener from analyzing the causes of the effect. If we add to these surprising peculiarities the novelty of Hungarian music to foreign ears—a music that differs widely in metre and accent from that of the Indo-Germanic tribes—we shall understand how the mistaken ideas arose in regard to the Gypsies. The wrong belief took root this way: excluding the well-known dance-music and operas of the present, whenever the Gypsies played that strange music, they were supposed to improvise—to give full play to their fancy—and these improvisations were called Gypsy music. The truth is, that the Hungarian Gypsy's occupation is the playing of Hungarian music.

"Old authors, mentioning the intrusion of Gypsies in Europe, describe all their qualities—which do not differ from their present attributes—but are unaware of their musical faculties. The Russian 'Bohemian,' the Spanish 'Gitano,' the English 'Gypsy' are of the same origin as the Hungarian 'Czigány'; their origin is clad in the same shadowy mist. In their main traits they even to this day resemble each other; but those strains they never knew, nor did they ever improvise—nay, most of them have no talent whatever for musical performance.

"How did the Gypsy turn into an artist in Hungary? No question is easier to answer. They accommodate themselves everywhere to their surroundings. In sensual Russia they display their wives' charms; in superstitious southern Europe they are conjurers, sorcerers; in England fortune-tellers; but nowhere have they formed such perfect music-bands as in Hungary, because they found music in no country such an indispensable public want as in Hungary.

"It might be brought up as a counter-argument, that the Russian, Spanish, and English Gypsies introduced the same music in those countries, but not finding a soil as proper for its improvement dropped it: while the Hungarian Gypsy could not fail to cultivate it in a country whose people did not sheathe their sword for centuries. Art was similarly upheld in Rome by Greeks; the Greek genius became rejuvenated in Rome in all the different arts indispensable to a public which had no room for the development of Roman art. This is the case in Hungary.

"Two undeniable facts counterbalance this erroneous supposition. To make the comparison possible, it should be proved that the Hungarians had no music before the intrusion of the Gypsies, just as the Romans had none except the Greek. Furthermore, the difference in character between the poetry of the Hungarians and the music of the Gypsy would have to be shown up.

"In regard to the first, we know that it is said of Attila, the savage ancestor of the Hungarians, that he loved to hear his musicians during his plain meal; we know that much later Árpád, the conqueror of Pannonia, drew water from the Danube for his offerings with an upturned hunting-horn; we know that at a contest of artists at the Wartburg in Thuringia, the lyre of the Hungarian Klingsor won the first prize. At the time of Sigismund, when the first Gypsies made their appearance, they are not spoken of as musicians. Their place is taken by the national poets, the so-called 'hegedűsök.' On the other hand, it was the Italians who were attracted by the liberality of Matthias Corvinus, whose song filled the cathedrals and seasoned the feasts. All this tends to prove that art was never neglected in Hungary; that the Gypsies found a proportionately developed art, which had taken deep root in the national soil. It were hard to believe that the Hungarians, who cling so tenaciously to their customs and laws, should have abandoned their music, to accept that of a race employed only in the meanest labor and lowest trades.

"In regard to the second, the proof is yet more obvious, no matter whether we consider the older or the newer Hungarian literature.

"We notice at once that the popular school, which in Hungary is the same as the French romantic school, and goes hand in hand with the music, has suppressed the classic and West-European poetical forms. This result cannot be attributed to Petöfi's and Arany's genius alone. Their main merit is to have expressed their ideas in rhythms best suited to the language and music. They have led Hungarian literature back to its original sources—we might say to those of the whole Finno-Ugric race, to which the Hungarians belong—the historical evidence of which is found in the choriamb (—u u—) metre of the Finnish epic 'Kalevala,' which Petöfi and Arany reinstated, and which we find constantly recurring in Hungarian music played by Gypsies."

Bertha gives a very complete sketch of the development and progress of Hungarian music. For fear of taking up too much of your valuable space, I must refer your readers to the article mentioned, and add that while it is painful to every nationality to be deprived of its righteous claims, to be misrepresented before the world, it is doubly so to a Hungarian, who knows how little his country can boast of compared with some others, and who daily meets with strange misconceptions of its character, nationality, history, and literature.

JAMES S. FRIEDLÄNDER.

TOLEDO, O., January 23, 1882.

## Notes.

ROBERTS BROS. have in press 'Sonnets and Canzonets,' by A. B. Alcott, mainly, we are told, composed during the past two years, or since the author's eightieth birthday.

We learn from the Boston *Advertiser* that J. R. Osgood & Co. are to be the publishers of the new 'Poole's Index,' and that the printing will be begun in April. The *Advertiser* notices from advance sheets that "under the heading *Women* there are references to nearly two thousand articles," and that "apparently no other subject has been so prominent in the periodical

writing of the last half century." The fact here pointed out may be both true and significant; but is the *Advertiser* sure that "natural selection" had nothing to do with the proportion in this Index? It must be remembered that no periodical was indexed exhaustively, and that, to their credit be it said, a large share of the task of choosing and cataloguing fell to women.

The late Rev. Samuel Johnson, of Andover, Mass., who, by the way, was the author of several hymns of more than ordinary merit, was engaged upon the third volume ('Persia') of his 'Oriental Religions, and their Relation to Universal Religion.' We are unable to say what stage had been reached in its preparation, or in what condition his papers are left.

The little volume of 'Three Christmas Sermons,' preached by sons of the late Leonard Bacon on the day following his death, will be prized not least for the characteristic alberty portrait of Dr. Bacon which faces the title-page. The publisher is Edward P. Judd, New Haven.

Mr. Charles Welsh, whose facsimile edition of 'Goody Two-Shoes' proved so great a success last year, is preparing for publication, through Griffith & Farran, London, a life of John Newbery, Goldsmith's publisher, and otherwise an eminent member of the book trade of the last century.

The fourth number of vol. ii. of *Appalachia* (Boston: W. B. Clarke & Carruth) is dated December, 1881, and has a prosperous thickness. The contents are varied: a magazine article on Lake Dunmore and Vermont Midlands, illustrated by a very pretty alberty copy from a water-color; a practical description of routes to Mt. Katahdin, with a very helpful map; the hitherto inedited diary of Captain Samuel Willard's scouting-party's journey across from the Pemigewasset to the Saco in the autumn of 1725; a second paper on geodetic formulæ; the proceedings of the Appalachian Club, etc.

The library of the New England Historic, Genealogical Society in Boston has nearly doubled in the past eleven years, and now embraces more than 17,000 volumes and nearly 55,000 pamphlets. Already there is urgent need of enlarging the premises to meet this increase.

An interesting document is published in the October-December issue of vol. xviii. of the Essex Institute Historical Collections—the circular letter, namely, issued in 1830 for the formation of an Essex County (Mass.) Lyceum. While the lyceum did not perhaps originate in this county, it there acquired its greatest development and became the parent of our present lecture system—an almost unrecognizable offspring.

Parts 8, 9, 10 of the new 'Brockhaus' Conversations Lexikon' (New York: L. W. Schmidt) carries on the work as far as *Angelfischeret*. The three maps, of excellent workmanship, represent South Africa and Madagascar, Algeria and Tunis, and Ancient Egypt; while the illustrations relate to angling, American races, and machinery.

We lately referred to Mr. John H. B. Latrobe's address on "The Capitol and Washington at the Beginning of the Present Century," as printed in the *American Architect*. It has now been put in pamphlet form (Baltimore); and though we miss some of the ground-plan illustrations, we have by way of compensation the famous corn-stalk columns and maize and tobacco capitals designed by the writer's father for the Capitol.

No. 19 of the series of "Scientific Worthies" commemorated by *Nature* with biographical sketch and portrait is Baron Nordenskjöld, whose fine face adorns the issue for February 2.

No. 96 of the Berlin Geographical Society's *Zeitschrift* contains the usual exhaustive bibliography by Dr. Koner of the geographical publications of the past year.

The specimen number of Richard Oberländer's 'Fremde Völker' (Leipzig: Klinkhardt) promises, in regard to numerous semi-civilized, barbarous, and savage nations, a wealth of new paper and old wood-cuts, with a text which is merely a reduction of ordinary literary stock into a form suitable for the drawing-room table. The cuts are ancient and good, and in this case illustrate the author's remarks on Buddhism. Having had their first avatar in Humbert's 'Japon Illustré' a dozen years ago, they have transmigrated into every European country, and are continually coming to new births on both sides of the Atlantic, tenanted a new body annually or oftener. It is nearly time they found *Nirvana*, since the motive of existence for most of them has long since passed away.

—Prof. Charles H. Chandler writes us from Ripon College, Wisconsin:

"Permit me to call attention to two errors in the paragraph concerning Antioch College in the *Nation* of the 16th inst. That paragraph locates Prof. Anthony at Iowa, and myself at Cornell. Prof. Anthony has been at Cornell for some nine years, and I came from Antioch directly to Ripon, a college greatly resembling Antioch as she was in her prosperous days, in respect to size, resources, and work done, but differing in being under the control of Congregationalists instead of Unitarians. Prof. Caldwell, of Cornell, was formerly a member of the Faculty at Antioch."

—It appears from a communication to the *Boston Daily Advertiser* that the death of the late estimable Professor of Chinese at Harvard, Kun-Hua-Ko, leaves his family in a condition which strongly appeals to the benevolent. "There are six children, of whom the oldest is only fourteen; the widow is not fitted by education or experience to do much toward their support, and they inherit no property to speak of." The University does its part by paying the cost of the family's return to Shanghai, and continuing the father's salary until they reach home. Beyond this they have no prospect of a maintenance, and it is proposed to raise a fund, to be held in Boston and disbursed at his discretion by a trustee, which shall yield an income of \$300. This sum is estimated by good judges to be sufficient to keep the family in tolerable comfort, and enable them to continue the education of the oldest son, whose knowledge of English must soon qualify him to contribute something to the support of the household. The incident of Mr. Ko's death and burial, with every token of sympathy and respect on the part of his colleagues, must already have had a humanizing effect on those who merely read of it in the public prints. We cannot doubt that there are many who will gladly embrace the opportunity offered, by subscriptions to the fund, to show not only a common compassion for the unfortunate, but a superiority to race prejudices. Money may be sent to President C. W. Eliot, Cambridge, Mass.

—Among the legitimate and gainful results of the Civil War has been the increased importance of the Surgeon-General of the Army, and especially of the duties he performs. Before the Rebellion his functions were, as the name implies, confined to the army itself, and he was often harassed and limited in their exercise; now he is the custodian of public treasures and an indirect conservator of the public health. A great war is a great awakener as well as a great scourge, and, happily for the rest of mankind as well as for ourselves, many of the medical lessons taught by the struggle of 1861-65 were seized by the actors and turned to lasting account. One outgrowth has been the creation of the largest and finest collection pertaining to military surgery ever made. The diseases of armies are copiously spread before the student for his information;

allied scientific topics also are practically illustrated, and the combined series, constantly increasing, now number twenty-two thousand specimens. In other words, there are enormous galleries overflowing with material for the most useful medical object-lessons properly arranged and described. The Surgeon-General has also the charge of a public medical library that is the best in this country, and, for working purposes, second to none in the world. It consists of more than fifty thousand bound volumes and nearly sixty thousand pamphlets on professional subjects. This has been collected under peculiarly favorable circumstances, and described with great care and skill by one of the most brilliant bibliographers of the age. The Surgeon-General is also the official custodian of more than sixteen thousand volumes of hospital records, and of immense quantities of original medical data, being the professional papers of the Civil War. These are in daily use for the confirmation or disproof of the numerous pension claims which for years to come must be adjudicated. Valuable as these are for the ends of justice, as historical documents, and for the study of military hygiene, medicine, and surgery, they are quite as important in connection with the general progress of medicine and its relations to the public health. Now, these three precious collections, whose existence affects in one way or another the whole country, are from necessity crowded into inadequate space in a single building—the theatre in which President Lincoln was shot. This, on its occupancy for public purposes, was insecurely remodelled; its walls are weak and out of plumb, and it is not only not fireproof, but surrounded and abutted by inflammable houses over whose occupants the Government has no control. It and its contents have already once narrowly escaped destruction by fire from without, and the whole may at any time be thus destroyed. When destroyed much that is of peculiar value can never be replaced. The Surgeon-General has repeatedly but unavailingly besought proper shelter for these treasures. The matter is again before Congress, and as \$300,000 will buy the land and erect a plain and substantial repository, it is sincerely hoped that so modest an appropriation will not be withheld.

—A study of Census Bulletin No. 274, showing the first hundred cities in the United States according to population, reveals just ten cities above 200,000, and ten more above half that population. The names of the first nine on the list represent eight languages, and are measurably monuments of our polyglot origin. New York is English; Philadelphia, Greek; Brooklyn, Dutch; Chicago, Indian; Boston, English; St. Louis, French; Baltimore, Irish; Cincinnati, Latin; and San Francisco, Spanish. If we divide the East from the West by the old line of the Alleghanies, four of the first five are Eastern cities, while of the second five four are Western and one Eastern. Concerning Mr. Gannett's new grouping of our States we remarked (*Nation*, No. 866), that the populations of his five divisions, with the exception of the last, were not very dissimilar. But in regard to their urban elements they are quite unlike. In his first division of nine Northern Atlantic States we discover no less than forty-nine of our first hundred cities, while only nine of these (including Washington) are contained in the nine Southern Atlantic States. In his Northern Central group of eleven States there are twenty-eight of our foremost cities, and only nine in the eight States of his Southern Central group. The five remaining cities lie in three members of his Western group. A like disproportion is observable in the total urban population of the various groups. The census of our hundred

largest cities was in 1880 a trifle over nine millions (9,076,564), a full sixth, and more, of our entire population. Of this total, 5,214,064 (more than five-ninths) were in the forty-nine cities of the Northern Atlantic division; only 726,621 were in the nine cities of the Southern Atlantic group; 2,250,668 in the Northern Central; 538,883 in the Southern Central; and the remnant, a little more than one-third of a million (346,331), were in the so-called Western department. Thus the urban dwellers in the two Northern groups are well-nigh seven and a half millions (7,464,729), in contrast with one and a quarter millions (1,365,504) in the two Southern.

—Fourteen of the hundred cities are in Massachusetts, twelve in New York, nine in Pennsylvania, seven in New Jersey, six in Ohio. Illinois (including Springfield, No. 100, pop. 19,743) and Indiana have four each; California, Connecticut, Georgia, Iowa, Kentucky, Michigan, Missouri, and Virginia three each; Minnesota, Tennessee, and Texas, two each. The remaining fourteen are scattered (one apiece) among the District of Columbia, Utah, and the States of Alabama, Colorado, Delaware, Louisiana, Maine, Maryland, Nebraska, New Hampshire, Rhode Island, South Carolina, West Virginia, and Wisconsin. In eight States, Arkansas, Florida, Kansas, Mississippi, Nevada, North Carolina, Oregon, and Vermont, there is no place with a population of 20,000. The largest town in any of them is Wilmington, in North Carolina, with 17,861 inhabitants. Its census number was No. 123, showing that twenty-two places larger than it were all too small to rank in the first hundred. It is further noticeable that our foremost cities are concentrated in a few States. A majority of the hundred, that is fifty-two, are situated in the six States of Massachusetts, New York, Pennsylvania, New Jersey, Ohio, and Indiana. Whoever will learn the names of the cities according to the Bulletin arrangement will correct many a misapprehension into which he and his friends have fallen concerning their comparative size. Let him remember that No. 10, New Orleans (216,000), is the smallest city over 200,000; that No. 20, Providence (104,857), is the smallest over 100,000; that No. 35, Toledo (50,137), is the smallest over 50,000; that No. 45, St. Paul (41,473), is the smallest over 40,000; that No. 63, Omaha (30,518), is the smallest over 30,000, and that No. 77, Lancaster (25,769), is the smallest over 25,000; and those six numbers will put into his hand a master-key to the size, both absolute and relative, of the "head-centres" of the whole country.

—A thousand pencils have marked in the third canto of the 'Purgatorio' the sententious saying of Virgil, in doubt as to the way—

"Chè il perder tempo a chi più sa più spiace"—

"For to lose time displeaseth most him who knows most." A singular emendation of this passage has been proposed, in No. 212 of the *Rassegna Settimanale*, by Prof. Giovanni Rizzi. He finds the verse quite intelligible by itself, yet irrelevant to the context, seeming to regard it as an allusion on Virgil's part to his own superior wisdom. He accordingly proposes "a chi più va" ("who goes furthest," or, with the strained meaning he attaches to *va*, "who has furthest to go"). This misconception is promptly exposed, and the correction rejected, by two writers in the succeeding number of the *Rassegna*, much in the fashion in which a rash Shakspeare emendation is "sat upon" in the *Athenaeum* or *Academy*, but with rather more courtesy. Foreign spectators of the controversy will be glad to have the integrity of the verse upheld, and indeed Prof. Rizzi admits that there is no support for his substitution in any codex. Whoever consults No. 213 of the *Rassegna*, by the way, will do well to read, in addition to the

rejoinders of Finzi and Borgognoni, Luigi Morandi's article on the difficulty of translating Shakspeare. It is very much enlivened by liberal extracts from Baret's forcible and *spirituel* discourse, in opposition to Voltaire, written in French in London in 1777, and unjustly forgotten. One of Baret's theses was that Shakspeare could not well be translated into any of the Romance languages, least of all the French; the corollary being that even to judge him required a "britannization." This was developed with great ingenuity and critical virility, particularly in regard to Voltaire's implied assumption that no author who does not cut a good figure in a French version can be a great author. Baret met this by showing how difficult it is to translate the commonest phrases, and, e.g., how different is the conception involved in *Le Roi de France* for a Frenchman and in *Il Re di Francia* for an Italian.

—In No. 821 of the *Nation* attention was called to the *Archiv für Mittel- und Neugriechische Philologie*, published by Dr. Michael Deffner of the University of Athens, and to the contributions therein made to our knowledge of the dialect spoken by the Tsaconians. This interesting people, inhabiting a few mountain villages on the east coast of Peloponnesus, has preserved some peculiarities of the ancient language more perfectly than any other of the modern Greeks. Dr. Deffner has published recently the first part—Phonology—of his Tsaconian grammar ("Zakonische Grammatik," Berlin, 1881), in which he presents in systematic form the results of his careful researches. All previous attempts at such a work have been either entirely unscientific or generalizations from a few imperfectly-known facts. This grammar, from a firm basis of facts, deduces in a scientific way the laws of the modification and loss of consonants in passing from the earlier stage of the Greek language. Never again can the claim be made that this is a Slavic dialect. The author not only aims to show that the Tsaconians are descended from the Laconians, but even thinks that he discovers from the modern phenomena peculiarities in the ancient Doric dialect of Sparta. The change of initial consonant from Lacones to Tsacones remains, however, without another example to support it. As the author rehearses the losses, gains, and modifications of words which have taken place in the dialect during this century, he emphasizes the importance of doing at once the work on which he is engaged, but makes us wonder that so much should have been preserved during 2,000 years. Many of his etymologies are bold, and some seem improbable, but most follow well-determined laws and are convincing. The ground had to be cleared of considerable rubbish before he could begin a scientific discussion of his subject, but the book as a whole is free from a polemic tone. This is the more creditable, as the author has been pestered with criticisms from men who could not forgive him for living in Athens, and yet believing that the classic Greek language did not have seven signs to express one sound. He touches on this in his 'Grammar,' where he says that the modern Greek has so changed its vocabulary that there is no preponderance of the *i* (ē) sound, although there are so many signs for it; but that ancient Greek is monotonous and horrible (*eintönig und schrecklich*) when pronounced according to the modern Greek rules. It is strange that the question of pronunciation should so long have continued a subject of acrimonious debate. Dr. Deffner announces a volume of 350 quarto pages in the modern Greek language, illustrated with numerous woodcuts, to treat of the history and topography of the Tsaconian district, and of the

life and manners of the people. This is to be ready in May of this year. The subscription price is twenty francs; after publication the price will be raised to thirty francs. Dr. Deffner's address is Rue de l'Académie 29, Athens.

—Wagner's famous comparison of an Italian opera to a concert in costume was never more literally justified than by the performance on Monday evening of "Traviata" at the Germania Theatre. When Madame Patti appeared in this city some time ago on the concert stage, without costume, tickets were at a discount. Everybody wanted to hear her in opera, and in opera alone. A clever manager took the hint, hired a theatre with its scenery, picked up a few singers and instrumentalists, held a few rehearsals, announced his dates, and everybody flocks to hear "Patti in opera." And yet nobody has heard Patti in opera. Even the uninitiated must have known that no respectable opera company can be formed in a few weeks, and that hardly one of the vocalists engaged to assist Madame Patti is worth a row of pins. Alone, alone, all, all alone, she floated on a sea of monotonous and often discordant sounds, and neither her beautiful voice nor her refined phrasing and perfect execution of florid and melodious passages could arouse any genuine enthusiasm in the audience. There were some calls before the curtain and an abundance of flowers, but no encores; and probably few spectators were sorry when it was all over. The advantage gained by seeing Madame Patti in costume, and by the opportunity of estimating her powers as an actress, was fully neutralized by the disadvantage of having to listen to all the dreary work done by the rest of the company; and Madame Patti, in spite of her mercenary aims, is yet too much of an artist not to be influenced, both physically and mentally, by such surroundings. The quality of her voice and her style of singing were fully characterized by us on occasion of her first concert, and we need therefore only add a word or two as to her conception of the part of Violetta. Violetta's name is Adelina Patti, and Adelina Patti is fond of jewels and trailing dresses, and does not succeed in reproducing emotions and pathos in such a manner as to affect the spectator. She is more successful in gay and playful characters than in tragic rôles, although she is said to prefer the latter. One thing we liked about her acting; and that was the absence of that exaggeration and affectation so common to Italian artists; and she also deserves credit for not responding to ill-timed applause in the pathetic situation in which *Gertrude* leaves her after exacting the promise that she will renounce his son. Many years ago her friend Dr. Hanslick pointed out to her the absurd contradiction of the "nuance" of repeatedly introducing the cough of a consumptive patient while at the same time making a vocal display of the power of her lungs. This *nuance* she still stubbornly insists upon; but we noticed it only once. Mention must also be made of the marvellous chiromantic powers of the Gypsies who in Scene x. Act ii. foretold the fortunes of *Flora* and the *Marquis* by inspecting the palms of their kid-gloves.

—Mme. Gerster appeared at Booth's Theatre on Wednesday week, in "Sonnambula," as *Amina*, which by many is regarded as her best rôle. The art which enabled her to assume the appearance of girlish simplicity and artlessness in the early part of the opera, no less than the refined portrayal of despair and pathos in the later parts, would have convinced any one not convinced before that she would have made her mark as an actress, had not the gift of a beautiful voice made it incumbent on her to become a prima donna. As Bellini's melodies

are a much nearer approach to genuine inspiration than Donizetti's, she had a better opportunity, too, than in "Lucia" to infuse into her notes that emotional warmth which shows that they come "not from the chest alone, but also from the heart." Her vocalization, however, regarded from a purely technical point of view, was in the florid passages open to criticism. Her staccato notes have not the silver-bell purity and bird-like spontaneity of Patti's, nor is her trill so perfect in rhythm and intonation, and her rapid legato passages are sometimes slurred in a reprehensible manner. The fact that, nevertheless, precisely these passages were most enthusiastically applauded, shows how uncritical those audiences are which still cherish the old Italian opera. But we admire Madame Gerster none the less for these shortcomings in the execution of florid passages. These are but the theatrical embellishments of music—the powder on the face of a fair actress. It is the poetic contents of the melodies, their sensuous and emotional beauty that Madame Gerster succeeds in reproducing in a manner equalled by few living vocalists; and herein lies her true greatness. We shall remember three or four of her sustained notes of this evening as among the most beautiful we have ever heard; and we have heard a great many.

—While Handel's oratorio, "Israel in Egypt," has long been familiar to Bostonians through the performances of the Handel and Haydn Society, it had its first performance by the Oratorio Society, under the direction of Dr. Damrosch, on Saturday evening, in Steinway Hall. The greater attention which in Boston has for years been devoted to choral works was probably in some way connected with the inferiority of the local orchestras; but now that New York has been placed on a basis of competition through the rival efforts of the Oratorio Society and the New York Chorus Society we shall probably soon be able to claim preëminence in this department also. The performance of "Israel in Egypt" by the former society was, of course, by no means equal in merit to the recent performance of the "Messiah," since this is a work of which every bar is as familiar to the singers as Old Hundred. The ease and animation that can only be acquired through years of familiarity were absent, and the general impression given by the work was accordingly more wearisome than the character of the music warranted. The most notable exceptions to this statement were the chorus, "He sent a thick darkness," and the one immediately preceding, "He gave them hailstones for rain," which was so brilliantly executed that it was redemanded. In the first chorus of the second part the sopranos were shockingly out of tune, and there were various minor imperfections which it would be tedious to record; but nevertheless, taken as a whole, the performance of this difficult oratorio reflected credit both on the Society and its director. Of the soloists the only ones that deserve unstinted praise were Mr. Winch, from Boston, and Miss Henne. Mr. Remmert's voice was rough, husky, and forced. The edition of the score chosen for performance was that edited by Mendelssohn in 1844 for the Handel Society in London, with the addition of the three trombone parts discovered by Chrysander and published in a later edition. In spite of the extravagant praise that has been bestowed on "Israel in Egypt" by Chrysander and Chrysanderites, we are not at all convinced that it is an artwork of the highest order. There are indeed in it numbers that rank with the finest creations of Handel and his successors in this department of music. But the first condition of a great work of art is an organic unity—a correlation of the va-

rious parts showing unmistakably that they belong to one and the same tone-body, as is the case, for example, with Bach's Passion music, Beethoven's Fifth Symphony, and Wagner's "Tristan and Isolde." Such an organic unity cannot be claimed for "Israel in Egypt," and it would be very strange indeed if it did exist, in view of the fact that not a few of its numbers were borrowed from other works of a totally different character, whether Handel's own or those of other composers—for Handel, it is well known, was a sort of musical Dumas in the way in which he plundered other people's orchards. In Mr. Dwight's analysis of this oratorio, which was printed at the head of the programme, nothing is so amusing as the enthusiastic language in which this arch enemy of programme music dwells on Handel's success in depicting the "small plague" of the frogs and the flies—a conception which no other composer could have handled "with any hope of not coming off flatly ridiculous." As "Israel in Egypt" is on the programme of the May Festival, more need not be said of it at present. Instead of the whole work, a selection of the best choruses, omitting the others and all the recitatives and airs, would be more enjoyable.

#### VOLCANOES.

*Volcanoes: What They Are and What They Teach.* By John W. Judd, F.R.S., Professor of Geology in the Royal School of Mines. [International Scientific Series.] New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1881.

No phenomenon in nature is so fitted to make a profound impression upon the mind of man as a volcanic eruption. It is a perilous spectacle, but the danger is seldom so imminent as to preclude an appreciation of its strangeness and sublimity. The conditions with which habit makes us familiar are reversed. The solid earth trembles, mountains may grow before our eyes or crumble away, the rivers are liquid fire, the clouds rain stones and scorie; and of familiar appearances only the lightning, otherwise so transient, hovers lingeringly about the centre of action in a congenial atmosphere. To the superstitious, eruptions have furnished images of horror which the imagination has been unable to surpass. Reason does not abate, but only gives a new direction to the interest which volcanoes excite in the untutored mind; for eruptions past and present offer almost the only opportunity for direct inquiry into the present condition of the earth at considerable depths below the surface, and of drawing inferences as to the earliest history of the globe. No better subject, surely, could have been chosen for a popular book of science, and Prof. Judd has written one which depicts and analyzes the phenomena in so graphic and vivid a manner that no one, to whom the contemplation of nature is not positively repulsive, can fail to find his interest sustained to the end. The almost certain popularity of the book renders it unnecessary to sketch its contents in detail, but makes it all the more important that the author should be held to a somewhat rigid accountability for the positions he has taken.

In spite of the interest which volcanoes have always excited, it is only within about half a century that any considerable advance has been made in elucidating their nature. Vulcanism embraces three grand divisions: the phenomena of eruptions, which are matters of observation and record; the products of eruption, of which the chief are the so-called "eruptive rocks"; and finally the causes of eruption, which lead to some of the grandest and most difficult questions in natural philosophy. Mr. Judd's descrip-

tions are most excellent. Many of them are from personal observation; and from the large amount of literature on the subject he has selected further illustrations very happily. The least admirable portions of the book are those which deal with eruptive rocks. It is neither to be expected nor desired that the author of a popular book should lay aside his own peculiar views and present a mere colorless report on the opinions of other authorities. But the object of a popular treatise on geology is nevertheless to give an account of the views prevailing among specialists on the subject in hand; and when the author maintains peculiar hypotheses, it should be clearly indicated that he and not the body of his fellow-workers is responsible for them. In his lithological discussions Mr. Judd has failed to observe this evident principle. On page 211 occur the following sentences:

"In the same dyke or sheet, when it is of great width, we often find every variation—from a glassy material formed by the rapid cooling of the mass where it is in contact with other rocks, to the perfectly crystalline or granitic varieties which form the centre of the intrusion."

"One material is found, under varying conditions, assuming the characters of obsidian, rhyolite, quartz-felsite, or granite; another, under the same set of conditions, taking the form of tachylite, basalt, dolerite, and gabbro."

Taken in connection with other passages (pp. 139-143), it is certain that Mr. Judd means to assert that he has observed, in a single dike, rhyolite passing into quartz-porphry, and this again into granite. If a reader making his first acquaintance with vulcanology through Mr. Judd's book were to turn to any one of a number of text-books on geology for further information on this transition, he might be startled to find it stoutly maintained that granite is not an eruptive rock at all, but a result of metamorphism at a comparatively low temperature. No question in geology has caused more discussion, or is apparently further from a final settlement, than that of the genesis of granite.

The science of lithology has been revolutionized during the past dozen years by the introduction of the study under the microscope of extremely thin, translucent sections of rock as a working method of determination. Although field observation still is, and must always remain, an indispensable portion of the study of rocks, lithology has thus become a branch of applied physics. Though microscopical lithology is far from a perfect science, it has been so zealously pursued, especially in Germany and France, that very definite and well-established results have been reached. Its students have almost unanimously come to the conclusion that there is a large number of rock types or species of a very definite character, while exceptional occurrences manifest the peculiarities of more than one species, as if they were mixtures. One of the extraordinary facts developed by the study of hundreds of thousands of sections is the persistence of rock types throughout the world to their minutest details. A typical volcanic rock (say an angite-andesite) from the Sierra Nevada is often wholly indistinguishable from a specimen of the same rock collected in Transylvania or in New Zealand, even when the minutest and seemingly most fortuitous points of microscopic structure are compared. This persistence, which extends to all the more important rock species, is far more wonderful than any well-established and generally-conceded instances of mixture or transition. Among such instances is none which compares most distantly with the dikes Mr. Judd so often meets. A dike consisting of granite at the centre, enclosed by quartz-porphry, and this again by rhyolite, involves no less than five transitions between rocks which elsewhere exhibit well-marked indi-

viduality, considerable differences in mineralogical composition, and genetic indications of great diversity. It is evident that only the most skillful application of the most rigid methods of determination will suffice to procure the general acceptance of so paradoxical a result.

The space which Mr. Judd devotes to the subject is unavoidably far too small to permit of the necessary amount of proof, and even the few indications of his methods which he gives do not altogether tend to inspire confidence. He speaks of the union of microlites to "skeletons of crystals," and asserts that, "by the filling up of the empty spaces in these skeletons complete crystals are built up." Skeleton crystals, either natural or artificial, are no novelty, but their endogenous growth is not a familiar fact. Mr. Judd speaks of "embryo microliths and perfect crystals"; and, again, he says, "we have a glassy ground-mass containing microliths (a 'crypto-crystalline' base)." It is a pity that these expressions were not more carefully chosen, for they would almost lead to the conclusion that Mr. Judd failed to realize the nature of crystallization, which is a matter of molecular arrangement, not of external form. Nor are his remarks on decomposition altogether satisfactory. If, for example, as he suggests, the absence of leucite in the older rocks were due to the conversion of this mineral into other members of the feldspar group, the secondary feldspar would retain the external form of leucite, and the replacement would not escape careful observation in a moderately well-preserved rock. In short, better sustained as well as fuller proof of the identity of obsidian and granite is indispensable to the acceptance of the assertion as a statement of fact.

Mr. Judd's résumé of the views now prevalent with regard to the condition of the interior of the earth is clear and impartial. The immediate cause of the ejection of lavas, he and others seek in the absorption of different gases, especially of steam, by melted rock-masses. It is well known that certain metals, as well as sulphur and perhaps other substances, absorb many times their own volume of gas when they are fused, and that this absorption is promoted by pressure. When the pressure or temperature is diminished to a certain degree, this gas is again liberated, and often explosively. Mr. Judd cannot be said to misinterpret the general opinion of geologists in asserting that "it is to the violent escape of these gases from the molten rock-masses, as the pressure upon them is relieved, that nearly all the eruptive phenomena of volcanoes must be referred." It is somewhat difficult, however, to account for the relief of pressure, and observers are not wanting who deny that the escape of gases is an invariable accompaniment of eruptions. Mauna Loa, the greatest active volcano of the present time, is said to form such an exception, and some authorities consider the part played by absorbed gas a subordinate one.

The greater number of geologists have held that, while the known eruptions of the present time are confined to narrow vents or chimneys leading to the surface, eruptions in past geological ages have taken place in great part through fissures of considerable length, and have been accompanied by comparatively little explosive activity. The evidence of this is familiar to all who have examined the eruptive rocks of the western portion of this continent. It consists in the structure of the rock-masses and in the comparative absence of pumice, volcanic ash, etc. Mr. Judd's views on this subject are those of an extreme uniformitarian. In his opinion, all eruptions occur on fissures, but these are closed against the passage of ejecta except at certain points. He is, however, wholly unwilling to admit that the conditions now prevailing on the

surface of the earth can ever have varied during countless millions of years, even as to the extent to which volcanic fissures were obstructed; and he ascribes the failure to find the channels which supplied the eruptions of the ancient volcanoes, in the districts where the occurrence of massive eruptions has been asserted, to lack of care in examination. The absence of pumice, etc., he accounts for by denudation, yet the most delicate organisms have been abundantly preserved. Mr. Judd, indeed, states that scoriae have occasionally been found in the Cambrian; but suppose it granted that there were explosive eruptions in pre-Tertiary times: does that prove that there were no massive outflows?

Geologists often take little interest in mineral veins, which are usually more or less directly connected with volcanic phenomena, and which possess as much scientific interest as economical importance. Considering, however, that Mr. Judd's chair is at a famous mining-school, his few remarks on the subject must be considered as somewhat naïve.

American readers outgrow in their early youth any touchiness with regard to the geography of their native land; but as this charming volume deals so largely in geographical matter, and will undoubtedly go through several editions, it may not be superfluous to note that Baron von Richthofen has written nothing on any region within 500 miles of the Rocky Mountains, and that the Yellowstone Park is a long distance from Colorado. "The great Comstock lode, in the Western Territories of the United States," too, might be more precisely placed; for, great as it is, it does not extend beyond the limits of a single State. Though, as has been explained, Mr. Judd's 'Volcanoes' is not a faultless book, comparatively slight alterations would suffice to correct its errors; while as an animated, and in most respects admirable, account of some of the greatest marvels of nature, it can be read with both pleasure and profit.

#### MEMORIAL HISTORY OF BOSTON.— VOL. IV.

*The Memorial History of Boston, 1630-1880.*  
Edited by Justin Winsor. 4 vols. quarto.  
Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co. 1880-81.

THIS volume completes the most extensive work of local history which has been attempted in this country, the four volumes containing 2,734 large pages, while a space not far from the equivalent of 300 pages is filled with illustrations in the text, in addition to the numerous heliotypes, which increase the number of leaves, and are not included in the above enumeration of pages. The work was completed in print in about twenty-three months from the first organization of the service upon it; and this staff consisted of nearly seventy writers, who, with engravers and printers, acted under the supervision of an editor, who had for counsellors a committee consisting of the Rev. Edward E. Hale, D.D., Dr. Samuel A. Green, and Charles Deane, LL.D.—all well-known historical students. Although Dr. Green has since been chosen Mayor of Boston, the auspices of the city as a corporation were in no way involved, the enterprise being strictly a private one, placed upon its business basis by Mr. C. F. Jewett, who had had some experience in publishing county histories. The occasion of the quarter-millennial celebration of the foundation of the city in 1630, which naturally incited in its people a review of their town's history, the recognition of nearly all the names among its contributors as being those of persons versed in the subject, together with the promise of the first volume, not gained by the quality of the succeeding ones, have

all contributed to make the experiment noteworthy; and the sale so far of nearly fifteen thousand volumes, or thirty-five hundred sets, has proved that a sufficiency of buyers can be found for an expensive book which can both create and satisfy a demand.

The auspices were doubtless favorable for making what may be called a new departure in the writing of history. In its coöperative character it was certainly not unprecedented. Cyclopædias, and even histories—like those of counties where different writers undertook each a town—had been tried not infrequently before, and the method was a familiar process. But to arrange the parts of one story so that special study at the hands of a recognized authority should develop this epoch or that episode, and each part supplement the others without essential omission in any, was never, we think, executed before on any scale commensurate with this. To do this, and do it well, required a body of trained writers, each familiar with his subject and not unfamiliar with his neighbor's. It was an advantage, too, that they knew each other in the councils upon historical matters which, under the auspices of the Massachusetts Historical Society, the American Antiquarian Society, and the New England Historic, Genealogical Society, are things of not infrequent occurrence in Boston. It was essential too that, besides having a reciprocal confidence in each other, they should feel a ready dependence upon their editor, even in his moods of heroic intercession, so to speak, and could submit without demurring to his control and direction. It is perhaps not too much to say that nowhere in America so well as in Boston could these conditions be readily found; nowhere else are the ties of literary association, which conduce to it, so perceptible and to be depended upon. Add to this an historical record to be worked over, which is of singular attractiveness, as all records are which cluster about ideas, even though they be unsavory ones (as many of those centring in Boston are to this generation), and we have another powerful help to this scheme.

It has happened that the annals of Boston and Massachusetts have been made conspicuous by a variety of causes. The attention which their own writers have paid to their story, and in no small degree its typical character, have served to produce this prominence. Then again even national events have been closely connected with their local chronicles. It is a clear succession from cause to effect, step by step, which makes, for instance, the Declaration of Independence the sequel of the incipient struggle against prerogative which was heard almost with the first footfall on the Boston peninsula. It may be that Virginia, let us say, sent greater patriots to Philadelphia than Sam Adams, but by him more than by any one else was independence organized. Toleration in Maryland represents an idea dearer to this generation than anything that came of the theocracy in New England, and there was not a little of the light and shade of romance about St. Mary's and Kent Island; but its story does not interest like the Boston story, notwithstanding all that there was of repulsiveness in the latter. And why? In part, doubtless, because it has not been so dwelt upon, and because the number of writers who lead the public have been far fewer in Maryland than in Massachusetts, but largely because of the actors themselves in the two scenes. It all traces back to the schoolmaster. The New England people wrote books, diaries, and letters, and poured their thoughts and manner of living into them, and they have been preserved. It is these things that fill the canvas and make a history interesting—not laws, charters, and official re-

ports. Of the beginnings and progress of Boston we know very much in this way—of no other American city so much. Such, then, were the promises of a proved success.

In noticing the previous volumes we have given some enumeration of their contents, and will do the same by this last of the series. The two divisions of the volume are, first, the continuation of the different phases of the history and life of the last hundred years; and, second, a series of special essays, embracing topics which seemed better treated historically, as covering the whole range of the period gone over in the book, than by divisions of time.

The subject of the social life of the town, following the Revolution and going on through the Federalist period, is taken up by Josiah P. Quincy, and is illustrated by diaries and society-letters now brought out from family desks. The changes which the last hundred years have made in the externals of Boston are traced by Mr. Edward Stanwood, the new editor of the *Boston Daily Advertiser*. Colonel Wright, the State Statistician of Massachusetts, explores the growth of the industries of the later generations. Mr. Edward Atkinson, almost of course, tells of Boston as a centre of manufacturing capital. Charles Francis Adams, jr., traces the somewhat erratic development of Boston enterprise in canals and railroads—slow at home, but pushing at a distance. The monetary leaders in Boston, Messrs. Kidder & Peabody, tell the story of finance in Boston. The changes in methods of underwriting are followed by the Secretary of the Underwriters' Union, Mr. Osborne Howes, jr. Mr. Hamilton A. Hill, formerly Secretary of the Boston Board of Trade, recounts the story of those proud days—not equalled now—when the private signals of Boston merchants were seen in almost every foreign port.

Coming to the "Special Topics," the first is naturally that of "Education, Past and Present," described by Charles K. Dillaway, whose name is associated with the history of the Boston Latin School. The libraries of Boston are followed down from their beginnings by the editor himself. The growth and outcome of Boston Transcendentalism was assigned to the late George Ripley, who was at work on his chapter when he died, and Mr. George P. Bradford has completed it. Mrs. Ednah D. Cheney, the only lady on the staff of contributors, has naturally "The Women of Boston" to discuss. The historian of the Boston stage, and the most devoted of its daily chroniclers, Col. William W. Clapp, of the *Boston Journal*, discourses of the drama in Boston. What has been done in the fine arts is told by Arthur Dexter; in music, by John S. Dwight; in architecture, by Charles A. Cummings; in science, by Professor Lovering, the President of the American Academy; and in medicine, by Drs. Green and Oliver Wendell Holmes. Mr. John T. Morse, jr., brings before us the magnates of the Boston bench and bar; Col. Marshall P. Wilder depicts what Boston and its suburbs showed for gardens in past years, and what contributions to pomological science they have so prominently made; and, finally, the somewhat wonderful story of the "Charities of Boston" has been told by one whose name is linked with the organization of this service in Boston, Mr. George S. Hale.

The same wealth of portraits, views, maps, and autographs as in earlier volumes is bestowed upon this, and a full general index renders all more valuable and accessible.

## A PENINSULAR VETERAN.

*Letters and Journals of Field-Marshal Sir William Maynard Gomm, G.C.B. From 1799 to Waterloo, 1815. Edited by Francis Culling Carr-Gomm. London: Murray.*

SIR WILLIAM MAYNARD GOMM lived to the mature age of ninety-one; but in presenting a portion of his letters and journals to the public, the editor has exercised a wise discretion in limiting himself to those which refer to the great Napoleonic wars: "One crowded hour of glorious life is worth an age without a name." In the character of Sir William Gomm himself there was nothing sufficiently remarkable to justify a record of his life; but the first fifteen years of his long military career were passed amid a succession of exciting and perilous adventures, which would give attraction and interest to the most commonplace of men. Entering the army when he was only fifteen, he found himself at the age of thirty Sir William Gomm, K.C.B., and Lieutenant-Colonel of the Coldstream Guards. Those were days of rapid promotion for the soldier who had the luck to carry a charmed life amid the multitudinous perils of the battle-field. Such an one was Sir William Gomm.

His baptism of fire was in the expedition to the Helder, under Sir Ralph Abercromby. He was present at the combat of Roliça and the victory of Vimiera, under Sir Arthur Wellesley. He shared in Sir John Moore's retreat, and commanded the guard which attended when the English General was laid in his last bed on the ramparts of Coruña, and, like all who served under that peerless soldier, Sir William Gomm had a warm admiration for his great and chivalrous character. He participated in the ill-managed and disastrous Walcheren expedition, and after that he was transferred to Spain and the army under Wellington. Of all Wellington's victories in the Spanish campaign, Talavera and Toulouse were the only ones at which Gomm was not present. He was present at the battles of Busaco and Fuentes de Oñoro; he bore an active part in the storm and capture of Ciudad Rodrigo and Badajoz; he was in the very thick of the great battle of Salamanca; as Quartermaster-General to the division under command of Sir Thomas Graham, he conducted that force through the passes of the Trassos-Montes, and took a conspicuous part in the crowning victory of Vitoria; he was present during the siege and blockade of San Sebastian, present in all the hard fighting among the valleys and defiles of the Pyrenees; he was at Quatre Bras, and passed, without so much as a graze, through the memorable 18th of June.

Experiences such as these lie so utterly outside of the track of ordinary existence that it is impossible not to feel an interest in one who has encountered them. A man whose business it has been to look death in the face, without quailing, for the space of sixteen years must, we are apt to imagine, have learned many things regarding the mystery of human life from which the world in general is cut off. Actually, however, these expectations are seldom realized in the biographies of soldiers. Nor is this strange. The men in whom the reasoning and reflective qualities are active and strong—who are careful to preserve their individuality, and value independence and originality of thought—are naturally the men who turn aside from a military life as the one, of all others, most unsuited to themselves. It is the active, unreflecting spirits—the men who can receive with unquestioning faith the conventional morality and the popular politics of the time—who accept commissions in the army. They experience no difficulty in making over their consciences to the keeping of

the superior military authorities, and are ready to shoot anybody at the word of command, without asking if he has done anything deserving of death. Sir William Gomm was the most amiable and kind-hearted of men in all his domestic relations, but the "horrors of war"—provided that they were perpetrated by British troops—appear to have affected him no more than the firing of so much blank cartridge. It is different when the French are concerned. When they plunder and burn, he is excited to the liveliest indignation, and cries out that "the age of chivalry is gone," and that the French are "worse than Huns," and "have traced back every step that nations make toward civilization." This refers to the retreat of Massena's army from before the lines of Torres Vedras; but subsequently, when he has to tell of the unspeakable horrors which followed when British soldiers were sacking the town of Badajoz, he describes them in this delicate fashion:

"Then followed the plundering scene, which was a jumble of all that was horrible and ridiculous. Our soldiers cannot shed blood when the occasion calls for it with half the enthusiasm of other people; but they enter with spirit into every other species of extravagance that they are tempted to by being placed in these situations, and when brutalized by drink they blunder into horrible absurdities."

What Sir William Gomm describes as "extravagance" and "absurdity" is said by the historian of the Peninsular War to have been "shameless rapacity, brutal intemperance, savage lust, cruelty, and murder." The fact was, that Sir William entered into this conflict with the simple and irrational belief that was characteristic of the immense majority of English gentlemen at that time. He regarded the struggle against the French Revolution as a sacred war, in which all the culpability was to be found on one side, and all the virtues on the other. The French Revolution was, in his estimation, simply an outburst of human savagery against a most chivalrous and beneficent order of things, and he appears to have expected to find in each individual Frenchman an incarnation of all the vices and the crimes which he attributed to the Revolution. When he is first brought into contact with this savage people, his surprise is considerable that his anticipations have not been realized. He writes apologetically to his sister upon the subject: "You will," he says, "think me a curious being for making such a confession; but I really cannot help telling you that the lower orders of them (I mean the soldiers) appear to me very amiable. They are civil, obliging, and gallant to a degree, and I don't believe half the stories that are told of them." But the effect of this first *rencontre* appears to have been speedily obliterated. He describes them shortly after as "worse than Huns"; and when he learns that Napoleon has abdicated, and that the Bourbons are about to be restored, his feelings are almost beyond the reach of words. "I have felt," he writes, "as if some piece of great good fortune had befallen me—something that was to brighten the prospect of all my future life. . . . I think the restoration of France to order, and to its proper political place among the commonwealths of Europe, is like the redemption of man from a second fall." The man, said Canning, who says he likes dry champagne is capable of saying anything. The man who could bring himself to believe that the restoration of the Bourbons to the much-enduring French people was like the redemption of man from a second fall ought (to paraphrase a remark of Lord Beaconsfield's) to be made to drink dry champagne for the rest of his life.

It is, however, hardly fair to test the character of a soldier by his opinions on general poli-

tics, and, from a purely military point of view, there is much to admire in the character which is disclosed to us in these letters and journals. This is the third biography of a Peninsular soldier which has recently been published. The two preceding ones were those of Gen. Sir Thomas Graham and Lord Clyde (Sir Colin Campbell); and now, comparing the three biographies together, the reader is struck by the various characteristics in which the heroes of them resemble one another. If there were many such men in the armies under Wellington, the secret of his almost unvarying success is in a great measure explained. There was nothing which contributed so powerfully to the expulsion of the French from Spain as the bitter dissensions amid the French marshals. At Fuentes de Oñoro the British army may almost be said to have been saved from defeat by the flat refusal of General Reynier to carry out the orders of Massena; and Wellington could not have driven Soult across the Pyrenees if Suchet had not obstinately refused to coöperate with or in any way assist his brother-Marshal. This spirit of unscrupulous egotism is at once the offspring and the ultimate destroyer of a system of military imperialism. Under such a system devotion to an individual is made the ruling principle of action, to the sacrifice of loyalty to the country or obedience to the laws; and the consequence was that where Napoleon was not himself present to enforce his authority, each French marshal considered himself independent of any other. The egotism of the master was caught up and faithfully imitated by his lieutenants. In contrast to this, what strikes the reader in the character of the English officers to whose biographies we are referring, is their loyalty to their chief and their unquestioning devotion to the common cause. Wellington could count upon his lieutenants for the execution of his orders with almost the same confidence as if he had been executing them himself—a fact sufficient in itself to double his strength in the field.

In addition to this, there would appear to have been, in the British officer of those days, a simplicity and manliness of character which enabled him to achieve great things without the consciousness of doing anything specially noteworthy. The letters in this biography of Sir William Gomm are letters addressed to his sister. They were written from day to day, amid the fatigues and excitements of pursuit or retreat—fresh from the storming of some fiercely-defended breach, or with the thunder of some great battle still sounding in the brain of the writer. Nevertheless, from the first of them to the last, there is hardly a reference to the part played by the writer himself in the great events of which he was a sharer and a witness—hardly an allusion to the perils he was daily passing through, and never a word in complaint of hardships or fatigue. But he is never slack to express his admiration of others, and here and there we get some interesting glimpses of the "Iron Duke" and the chief among his lieutenants. Of Sir Thomas Graham he writes:

"I dined yesterday at Gallegos with General Graham. I do not know whether I have mentioned to you that he had several narrow escapes at this siege [Ciudad Rodrigo]. All the world would say that he exposes himself too much on all occasions, if he did not make such good use of his time while he was exposing himself. He is one of those men who set us in good humor with ourselves, and with the times we live in, as often as we approach them; and while we honor them for their own merits, we feel a secret pride at the recollection that we belong to the same order of being with themselves, and we are glad to witness the elevation of which our nature is susceptible. This is a safe sort of vanity, and such men do more good among us than they ever calculate upon."

Here is his account of Salamanca:

"Never, I believe, was success anticipated to the degree that it was in the English army when the advance was ordered. Had an indifferent person come among us while the French were continuing the heaviest of their cannonade upon us, and observed our soldiers preparing for the advance, he would have said: 'Whatever these men are going to attempt, they must succeed.' The scene, too, was of all others the most animating. The country was such that the fifty thousand men of either army could move in all directions, and from many points be in view almost at the same moment. . . . The destructive fire of the French artillery grew more deadly as we approached it. But the spirit of our people rose in proportion, and when they reached the enemy's solid columns, which opened a fire like a volcano upon them, there was not a moment's hesitation—no check along the whole line, but a general shout of exultation was echoed from all quarters. The enemy wavered, retired from height to height, till at length it was impossible to withstand the ardor of our soldiers, which seemed to increase with every fresh assault, and complete rout ensued. . . . I have told you on other occasions that, if I had any faith in sorcery, I should incline to think that I bear a charmed life. But I do not thank Heaven with half so much fervor for having suffered me to pass without injury through this day, as for having suffered me to bear a part in more than one of the most important of this day's feats."

Major Gomm (as he then was) was attached to the Fifth Division, by which the battle was virtually won. General Leith, who commanded, had his arm shattered by a musket-ball toward the close of the engagement, and regarding him the gallant and enthusiastic Major writes as follows:

"General Leith is surpassing our most sanguine expectations in the promise he is giving of a speedy recovery. . . . At headquarters they are full of his praises; he was the Bayard or Gaston de Foix of this battle, 'the observed of all observers'; he threw a truly chivalrous spirit into all those who were about him. The wits say that while he was advancing he looked like the presiding spirit of the tempest; his division the thundercloud that he rolled after him; and his staff were flashes of lightning that he scattered about him."

The battle of Waterloo was the last of Sir William Gomm's battles. The remaining sixty years of his life and his military service were passed in the discharge of peaceful duties. The last position of importance that he filled was the Commandership-in-Chief of India. His five years' tenure of this charge constituted one of the few and brief intervals of peace which are to be found in the annals of British rule in India. It was destined to be broken by the mutiny of the Sepoy army, and the rebellion which followed it. Sir William laid down his command almost on the eve of this catastrophe, which was as little anticipated by him as by men of larger experience of India, and greater knowledge of its people. He handed over the Bengal army to his successor with an emphatic eulogy on the discipline and assured loyalty of the native regiments. Four months later a small body of British troops were desperately clinging to the ridge before Delhi, and daily attacked by thirty thousand rebellious Sepoys. Sir Charles Napier had predicted this occurrence so far back as 1853; but Sir William was not the order of man capable of such feats of prophetic divination. He was a loyal-hearted, courageous, manly soldier, as these letters abundantly show, but he rose to high command, not in virtue of any natural gifts, but by the fortunate accident of being bullet-proof during a stirring period of rapid promotion.

*Social History of the Races of Mankind.* Fifth division: Arameans. By A. Featherman. London: Trübner & Co. 1881. 8vo, pp. xvii.-664.

MR. FEATHERMAN comes to the execution of his

ambitious task with decided self-confidence and with a well-defined scheme. Man, according to him, came into existence under varying conditions, in different countries, and at different geological periods, and the race now includes six stocks. The Nigritian arose in Africa, the Melanesian in Borneo and the adjacent islands, the Maranonian (American Indian) in the valley of the Amazon, the Turanian in Siam, the Aramean (Semitic) in Syria, and the Iranian (Indo-European) in Georgia. He gives no reasons for the adoption of this scheme, perhaps reserving his grounds for a later volume. He has selected the present volume as the first of his series for publication because the Semitic nations and tribes "have already attained a high degree of civilization," and "the work will present a high interest not only to scientific men, but to the general reader; while it furnishes valuable information as regards the Semitic question which has recently been raised in Hungary and Germany." We have been unable, however, to get any light from our author on the "Semitic question," and we fear it is only a painful interest his work will excite in scientific men. His procedure is the reverse of scientific. He makes statements of disputed points with the most assured calmness, without hinting that any doubt attaches to them, and generally without assigning any reasons for his statements. He prefers the term "Aramean" to "Semitic" as a designation of race or stock, apparently on the ground that the Syriac is the oldest of the Semitic family of languages, which is a grievous misconception. In this Aramean stock he includes the Egyptians, Berbers, and other North-African peoples, and describes their migrations and early history as if all this was an assured fact. He rounds and embellishes all the early periods into symmetry by ungrounded assumptions.

His book is so far an admirable specimen of what such a book should not be. The execution is, however, unequal. His accounts of modern Semitic and other communities, such as the Nestorians, Berbers, Wahabees, Druses, and Falashas are usually correct, being taken from books of travel, though not always from the most recent authorities; but in the history of the ancient nations his lack of thorough acquaintance with the subjects, and his desire to smooth everything into good shape, lead him into so many blunders that this part of the book can hardly be said to be worth anything. In respect to the Phœnicians, along with a good deal that is correct, we are informed that they were the first race of "Syro-Arameans" who attained a high degree of culture; that through Cadmus they introduced civilization into Rhodes and built a temple to Neptune; that they formed a new nationality (Carthage) on the west coast of Africa; that they adored the secret and inherent forces of nature, and that their religion at its rise was distinctly Sabæan in its ritualistic forms and principles. The linguistic information that our author gives is quite new and very surprising. The Phœnician alphabet, he says, was composed of twenty-two letters, which were delineated in the quadrate form of the Hebrew type, but it originated with the Babylonians, and the language of the Phœnicians formed a connecting link between the Hebrew and the Chaldee; but, as its literature has entirely perished, the nature of its internal construction can never be known with any degree of certainty. In Assyria and Babylon, he further remarks, two methods of writing were in use—the cuneiform, which was of Aryan origin, and a cursive form, strictly alphabetical, whose characters resembled the Phœnician and Hebrew letters, and were undoubtedly of Phœnician or Babylonian origin. Elsewhere (p. 102, foot-note) he adds that the old written characters of the Hebrew language were

partly Phœnician and partly Babylonian, and that the alphabetic forms which have come down to us were introduced only after the building of the second temple, and were in use at that time in the provinces bordering on the Euphrates and the Tigris, and are therefore of Assyrian origin. A greater medley of nonsense it would be hard to concoct.

It is a still graver fault that in our author's account of the customs of the Hebrews he utterly neglects historical progression, leaving the unwary reader free to credit the men who came out of Egypt with ideas and usages that belonged only to the generation that lived ten centuries later. He sometimes attains unconscious humor, as when he says that the Hebrews were distinguished for frugality, sobriety, and temperance (one wonders if he has ever read the Prophets), and that the women were far more addicted to flattery than the men. He gravely states (p. 100), as an inference from Ps. xvi. 4, that they were not permitted to pronounce the names of foreign deities. He identifies (p. 89) the John Hyrcanus who conquered the Idumæans (B.C. 129) with him of the same name who called in Pompey to his aid (B.C. 63). Even where he makes no bald misstatement, he frequently gives a false coloring to his description, and this happens so often that we can only caution the reader against the book. It contains a good deal of useful information, but one must watch for errors on every page.

*Coffee from Plantation to Cup.* A Brief History of Coffee Production and Consumption. With an Appendix containing Letters written during a Trip to the Coffee Plantations of the East, and through the Coffee-Consuming Countries of Europe. By Francis B. Thurber. New York: 1881. 8vo, pp. xiv.-416.

It is between four and five hundred years since coffee first began to be cultivated in Arabia, and for a long time its production and consumption were confined to that country and Persia. The first coffee-house in Europe was opened at Constantinople in 1554. Another century elapsed before it reached western Europe. "The first coffee-house in London was opened in Newman's Court, Cornhill, in 1652, by a Greek named Pasqua Rossie." The first coffee-house in France was opened at Marseilles in 1671; a year or two later one was opened in Paris. It will thus be seen that two hundred years ago the use of coffee in the countries of western Europe had just commenced. Now the average annual consumption of coffee in the non-producing countries of the world considerably exceeds a thousand millions of pounds. No trustworthy statistics—in fact, in most cases no statistics at all—can be obtained of the amount of coffee consumed in the countries where it is produced. Hence all our statements in regard to the consumption of coffee must be understood as referring to non-producing countries.

The Hollanders are the greatest coffee drinkers in the world, their annual consumption being about 18 lbs. per head of the whole population. The principal cause is the fact that Amsterdam has long been one of the great coffee marts of the world, and, being admitted free of duty, coffee is very cheap. Next come Belgium and Denmark, in which the consumption per capita is about half that of Holland. Next come the United States, in which the consumption per capita in 1880 was 8.8 lbs., in 1881 somewhat less, being 8.4 lbs. per head. By a calculation founded on the data furnished in Mr. Thurber's book, the present consumption of coffee in the United States may be stated at a little over one pound per week for each family in the nation. In the use of tea and coffee the people of England and the United States present a most remarkable

contrast. The annual consumption of the people of England is just about a pound of coffee per head, or about one-eighth of that of the people of the United States. Comparing the consumption of tea with that of coffee, it will be found that while the people of the United States use about five pounds of coffee to one pound of tea, the people of England use five pounds of tea to one pound of coffee.

There are fashions in coffee, as in almost everything. Mr. Thurber gives many curious examples, of which we have room for only one. In his chapter on Mocha coffee he says (p. 62):

"At Aden and Alexandria the coffee is carefully picked over and assorted in compliance with the singular fashion in trade which creates a demand in Europe for the larger beans, while the United States will have none but the smaller ones. In point of fact, the larger beans are the best, being fully developed and more perfect both in appearance and flavor."

The whole amount of coffee consumed in the United States in 1880 was, in round numbers, 440,000,000 pounds. Where does it all come from? Probably in regard to no question of fact is there such widespread popular delusion as to this. If all the retail grocers in the United States were to be asked of what kind of coffee they sold most, undoubtedly a large majority of them would answer, "Java." Mr. Thurber's statistics, taken from the official returns of custom-house officers, afford the means of answering the question correctly. If we include under the general name of "American coffee" the coffee produced in South and Central America and the West Indies, it will be found that in the year 1880, of the 440,000,000 pounds entered for consumption more than 360,000,000 pounds, or nearly five-sixths, was American coffee. Of this enormous amount 259,000,000 pounds came from Brazil; in other words, more than four-sevenths of all the coffee used in the United States is "Rio"; but nearly all is sold and consumed under some other name. Mocha coffee is very generally considered the finest, and large quantities are sold under that name at a price higher than ordinary. The whole amount of coffee imported into the United States under the name of "Mocha" in the year 1880 was 4,535,040 pounds. Of this not more than two and a quarter millions of pounds was genuine, the rest being coffee imported into Arabia from other countries and then exported to the United States as "Mocha." It will be seen that the amount of genuine Mocha imported into the United States is about one pound in two hundred of the total import. Practically this is all consumed in the great seaports where it is imported and in their immediate vicinity. Thousands of retail grocers in the United States sell, and their customers use, what both believe to be genuine Mocha. Yet it may be well doubted whether outside of the great seaports there are a hundred grocers who have a pound of genuine Mocha in their stores. But they may comfort themselves with the assurance that the coffee they sell under that name is, if anything, a little better than the genuine article.

The total amount of coffee imported under the name of "Java" in 1880 was, in round numbers, 41,000,000 of pounds, less than one-tenth of the total import; "and yet," says Mr. Thurber, "the fragrant Java is the favorite berry throughout a large part of the United States, and every storekeeper in sections where it is in favor believes he has the genuine article. If we deduct the low grades of Java imported, we discover that a very small quantity of fine brown old Government Java is consumed in the United States." Nevertheless, the reader may enjoy his coffee in peace, and comfort himself with the assurance that the deception is in name rather than fact, and that the average quality of the coffee used, apart from adulteration with other sub-

stances, is quite as good as if it were all truly labelled. We leave statistics with the remark that a little over one-half of all the coffee consumed in the world is produced in Brazil.

Mr. Thurber treats very fully of the adulteration of coffee, and gives many recipes which may be used by dishonest grocers, or by honest consumers who may prefer to adulterate their coffee themselves. There is one absolutely certain rule to follow for those who are willing to buy the adulterated article: Buy handsomely-labelled packages of ground coffee. You will never go wrong: they are, without exception, adulterated. There is only one equally certain rule to secure pure coffee: Buy the bean, and grind it at home, or have it ground by the grocer in your presence. It is of course safer to roast it also yourself, but adulteration of the roasted coffee before it is ground is so easily detected that it is almost never attempted.

We have room to notice but one more point, but that is the most important: how to make a good cup of coffee. Of course a good quality of the coffee bean and thoroughly clean utensils are indispensable. Then there are three requisites to perfection—namely, that it be fresh roasted, fresh ground, and fresh made. Mr. Thurber gives a large number of recipes, accompanied with instructive comments. We give two: Into a large cup of coffee ground moderately fine break one egg with shell; mix well, adding enough cold water to wet the grounds thoroughly; pour on a pint of boiling water; boil slowly for ten or fifteen minutes; let it stand three minutes to settle; pour through a fine wire-sieve into a warm coffee-pot. This will do for four persons. This is the "Thurber recipe." The following method is due to that "king of cooks" Soyer. If simplicity is an evidence of genius, it is worthy of its author: "Put two ounces of ground coffee in a stew-pan set on the fire, and stir with a spoon until quite hot. Pour over a pint of boiling water; cover over closely for five minutes; pass it through a cloth, warm again, and serve."

Mr. Thurber's chapter on the chemistry of coffee contains nothing new; neither does he present any systematic treatment of its effects on the human system. It is, however, evident from scattered remarks, and from his chapter entitled "The Tropics' Best Gift," that he is himself very fond of this "fragrant infusion," and regards its use as healthful. The book contains a great mass of statistics, the more trustworthy because evidently not compiled for the purpose of supporting any particular opinions.

*Original Portraits of Washington, including Statues, Monuments, and Medals.* By Elizabeth Bryant Johnston. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co. 1882. 4to, pp. xxii.-257. 32 plates (mostly heliotype).

THE first thought suggested by a collection like this is of the small dependence to be placed on contemporary judgments of portraiture. We cannot, indeed, adopt the opinion of any eminent person familiar with Washington's features without rejecting testimony equally respectable in opposition or exclusion. The chances that Custis's and Marshall's and Jefferson's advantages as connoisseurs were outweighed by a natural incapacity for "seeing a likeness," or that Lafayette's ready approval was prompted by the courtesy of his race, combine with the great diversity of the artistic performances themselves to make us doubt whether we can at the present day, by any reasonable induction, determine the real Washington amid so many counterfeits. There is no doubt that in this case, at least, the sculptors are more trustworthy than the painters; and the authoress decidedly pronounces in

favor of Houdon's as the standard head. Nevertheless, she herself exhibits very little critical capacity, as will appear from a single instance. What is called the Manley or "Blacksmith's" medal, she says, "demands attention, not only because it was received by contemporaries of Washington as a striking representation of the President, but because it was issued in 1790, and is one of the first medallion works known to have been executed in this country. It is," continues the writer, "doubtless after the head of Washington by Joseph Wright; for the lines are strong and realistic, as was the manner of that artist." Without inquiring whether Wright had a monopoly of "strong and realistic lines," it is to be observed that the three samples of his work here given—a profile drawing and two medallions—are as distinct as possible from the alleged copy, which is strongly prognathous. In fact, if there is any one test better than another of the comparative value of the portraits in this volume, it is the facial angle.

We see this, for example, in the two very interesting paintings made in the same year (1789), while Washington was at the East—namely, Edward Savage's, now in the Harvard Memorial Hall, and Christian Göliger's, now privately owned at Bristol, R. I. There is a strong resemblance between them in the nose, mouth, chin, and in the projection of the lower part of the face, while the total impression produced is by no means the same in each case. These two portraits—with which may be compared for the facial angle the three silhouettes on plate xxi., one being a shadow-picture—we regard as on the whole the most interesting in the book, though Peale's portrait of the youthful Washington (of which a fine heliotype serves as a frontispiece) and the Copley miniature (if it could only be proved to be Copley's) are intrinsically more precious. It appears that the monumental strivings of the American people have resulted in but four equestrian statues of Washington—H. K. Brown's (New York, 1856), Thomas Crawford's (Richmond, 1858), Clark Mills's (Washington, 1860), and Thomas Ball's (Boston, 1869). Of these the first and the last are easily the best.

The various heliotype reproductions are designated by the name of the artist placed below, with a simple reference to the page of the text on which each is described. This seems to us a faulty arrangement, in so far, at least, as the date is not added. In practice we have found it a hindrance to speedy enlightenment, especially as there is no regular or even frequent reference from text to plate. In no one place are we sure of finding date, artist, and present owner explicitly set forth; the table for the plates supplies two of these facts and omits the third. As a rule, the heliotype is from the original canvas, ivory, metal, stone, or paper, but sometimes (as in the case of the Savage Mt. Vernon family group in the Boston Museum) the difficulties of lighting the picture could only have been overcome by electric illumination, and in such instances engravings were resorted to. Whether some such obstacle prevented the portrait in the New York City Hall from being copied, we are not informed. It should be remarked, by the way, that not every portrait catalogued is represented here. Such as it is, with its pleasantly written and gossiping histories and its profuse array of illustrations, this volume will find universal acceptance, and is worthy of the pains that have been bestowed upon it.

*The Marriages of the Bonapartes.* By the Hon. D. A. Bingham. Two vols. London: Longmans, Green & Co.; New York: Harper & Bros.

BESIDES the variety of popular history which is

most esteemed in this country, and which is designed chiefly for youthful readers with no knowledge of the subject, and written by persons who regard the investigations of scholars as either useless or impertinent, there is a kind, written for English circulating libraries, of which the works of Mr. Hepworth Dixon are the best-known examples. The merits of the Hon. Mr. Bingham's book are chiefly negative, but they are sufficiently numerous to make it an unusually good specimen of its class. It is transcribed from works no more inaccessible than the memoirs of Metternich, Madame de Rémusat, Count de Melito, Victor Hugo, and Lanfrey; but the patchwork is very well done, and the style, though anything but careful, is easy. It would be difficult indeed to make a book which should describe the picturesque and amusing incidents with which the lives of the Bonapartes and their dependents teem and not be entertaining, and the Hon. Mr. Bingham deserves credit

for giving his readers much less than is usual of what they would have to unlearn. He does not treat Josephine as a martyr, nor blink the eccentric morals of Hortense. But he certainly praises Eugène more than he deserves, and that gentleman would have been surprised to learn that he indulged in no intrigues after 1814. Louis Bonaparte, on the other hand, gets less credit than he deserves, probably because his merits were political rather than personal. The time-honored fables about the Duke of Reichstadt are not repeated, but neither is the well-vouched-for story of the Princess Borghese and Canova. There are omissions of various other interesting episodes, such as Joseph's life in this country; but, to offset this, it should be said that the story of Miss Patterson is well told, and no attempt is made to show that her marriage was legal, or supposed to be legal, in France.

In a work of this kind one must be satisfied with tolerably true outlines, and not look for

accurate details. We have therefore spared the reader an enumeration of the incorrect statements we have noticed, remarking merely on the peculiarities of the honorable author's nomenclature, due apparently to the exclusive following of French authorities. "Caspar Hauser," for instance, is more familiar than is Gaspard Hauser, and we fail to see why the holder of a German duchy should be styled Duc de Leuchtenberg, or German castles and mansions called châteaux.

## BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Koolman, J. ten D. Wörterbuch der ostfriesischen Sprache. Part 14, Lomigheid-Muksen. Norden: H. Brama.  
Mackenzie, R. America: a History. Harper's Franklin Square Library, 20 cents.  
McCabe, J. D. New York by Sunlight and Gaslight. Philadelphia: Douglass Bros.  
Metternich, Prince R. Memoirs of Prince Metternich, 1880-35. Vol. III. New York: Harper & Bros.  
Minor, Ellen E. Murillo. New York: Scribner, Welford & Co. \$1.  
Mollett, J. W. Meissonier. New York: Scribner & Welford. \$1.

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John Stuart Mill.

A Criticism. With Personal Recollections. By Alexander Bain, Emeritus Prof. of Logic, University of Aberdeen. 12mo, \$1 25.

James Mill.

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